# Modern Society

## Social Studies for CSE

## Jack Nobbs

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# MODERN SOCIETY

*Social Studies for CSE*

Also by Jack Nobbs

*Social Economics* (McGraw-Hill 1969)
*Economic Problems of the 1970s* (Pergamon Press 1971)
*Handbook on Objective Testing – Civics* (Methuen 1971)
*Objective Questions in Social Economics* (Methuen 1972)
*Essay Techniques in Economics* (McGraw-Hill 1973)
*Economics for Advanced Level* (McGraw-Hill 1973)
*Daily Economics* (with Paul Ames) (McGraw-Hill 1975)
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## *Social Studies for CSE*

Jack Nobbs

*Senior Tutor and Head of the Sociology and*
*Economics Department, Hewett School, Norwich*

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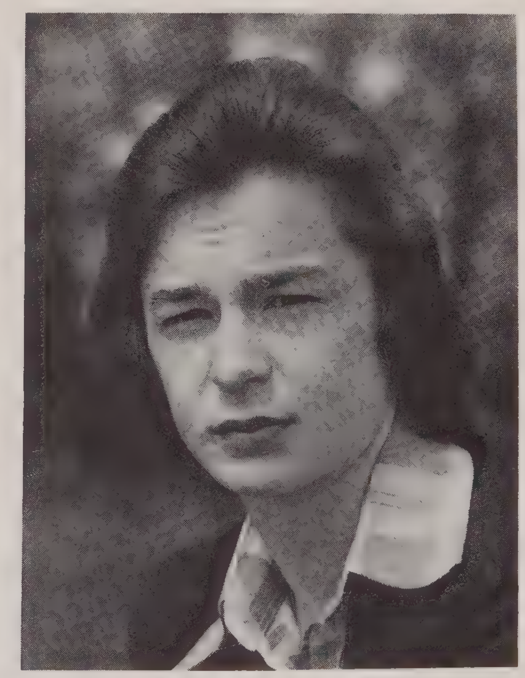
# I LIVING WITH OTHERS

## Unit 1 *THE INDIVIDUAL*

Have you seen her before anywhere?



Surely you recognise him?

### TOPIC 1.1 WE ARE ALL DIFFERENT

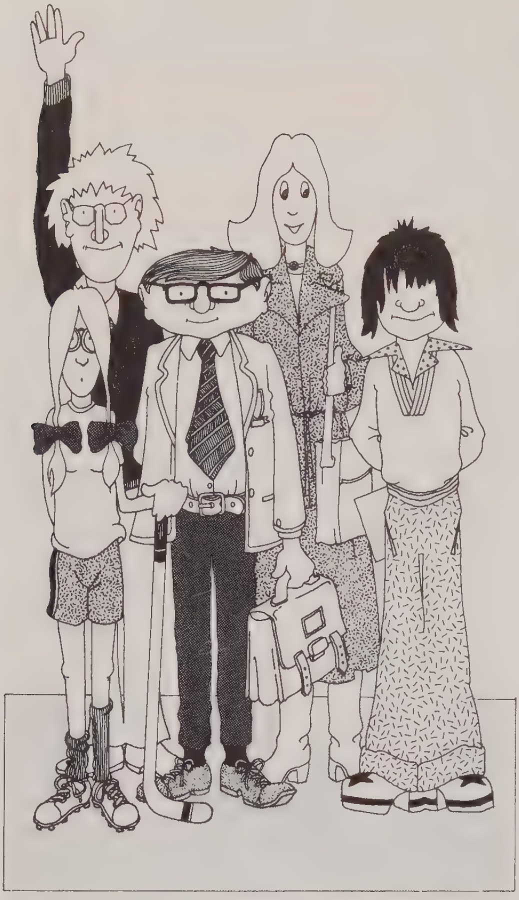
If you are a girl, are you anything like the one in the picture? If you are a boy, is the youth on the right anything like you? No doubt you are better looking. One of the photographs may resemble you or may remind you of someone. There may be a likeness, but the person in the photograph is different from everybody else.

Now look round at the others in your group. They have different faces, yet they all have some features in common. They have eyes, ears, a mouth and a nose of sorts. No doubt they all have hair. Yet if you look at a group of old people some of the old men may be bald. Does this mean that hair is not an essential feature of human **individuals**? A war once started when a man called Jenkins had his ear cut off. It was called the war of Jenkins's ear. An individual may lose an arm or a leg in a road accident, but we would still think of him as a human. He would still be an important individual, especially to his friends and to those who nursed him.

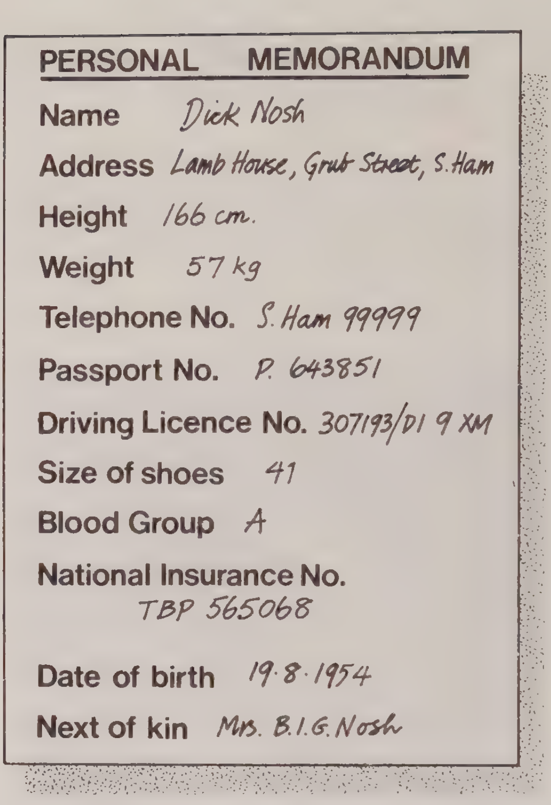
You rightly feel annoyed if you are not treated as an individual. We jealously guard the rights of the individual. The United Nations Universal Declaration on Human Rights affirms:

> 'All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood'

The human race is made up of nearly 4,000 million people and each one has individual rights.



Any kids like these in your class?



**PERSONAL MEMORANDUM**

**Name** Dick Nosh

**Address** Lamb House, Grub Street, S. Ham

**Height** 166 cm.

**Weight** 57 kg

**Telephone No.** S. Ham 99999

**Passport No.** P. 643851

**Driving Licence No.** 307193/D1 9 XM

**Size of shoes** 41

**Blood Group** A

**National Insurance No.** TBP 565068

**Date of birth** 19·8·1954

**Next of kin** Mrs. B.I.G. Nosh

Dick Nosh's diary

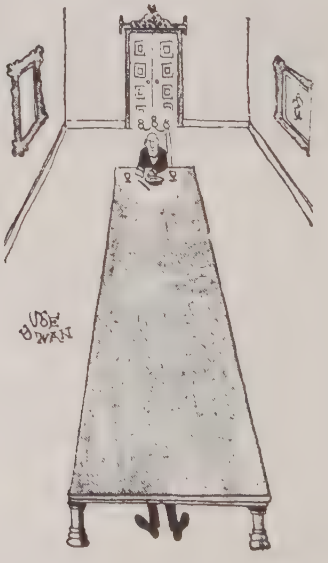
They are all different even though they have some things in common.

TOPIC 1.2 IN WHAT WAYS ARE WE DIFFERENT?

The collection of facts shown in Dick Nosh's diary could only apply to him, although some of the details could apply to several people. It is possible that there is another boy called Dick Nosh and that several people live in Lamb House, Grub Street, South Ham. Which things in the list only apply to Dick Nosh?

The people in your class are different but they are probably dressed in a similar way. Some may be more 'way out' than others. If any one is very 'way out' you might call him a 'weirdy'. Does this suggest that because he is rather peculiar he is not acceptable to your group?

If your group included a girl with bronze rings round her long neck, she would stand out. Imagine your teacher mounted on a white horse instead of sitting on a chair. Differences become more noticeable if an individual is very different from others in a group. Yet there are Padaung women in Burma with ringed necks, and people do sit on



white horses. The Burmese woman does not seem very different in her own country because many other women look the same.

If you really study the others in your group you will find that they have not only different physical features but different characters and different personalities as well. How can a person have a strong **personality** but be a bad **character**? How does this idea apply to Adolf Hitler? Can you think of someone who has a good character but a weak personality?

We have mentioned a few ways in which people are different. Differences are not merely confined to obvious things such as height and weight, but also involve an individual's achievements, behaviour, beliefs, hopes, ideas, interests and attitudes. Which of these things applies to humans but not to other creatures?

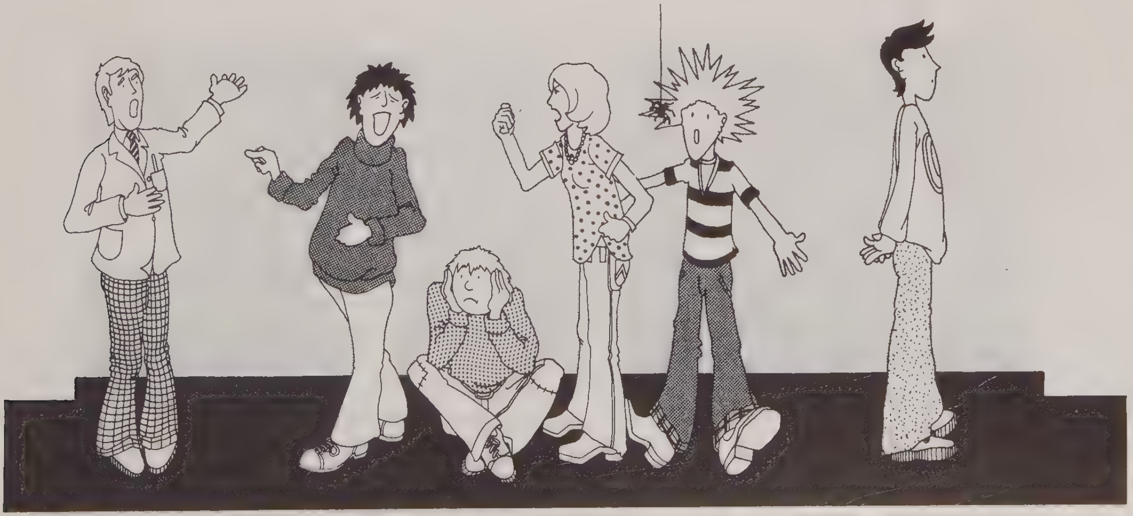
A sea-lion can perform many tricks. His **achievements** may include walking on a moving ball or jumping through a hoop. You may say that your dog is well-behaved or badly-behaved, but are you then using human standards by which to judge his **behaviour**? If a dog could talk he might argue that from a dog's point of view it should not be considered bad behaviour to bite somebody who he suspects might be his enemy.

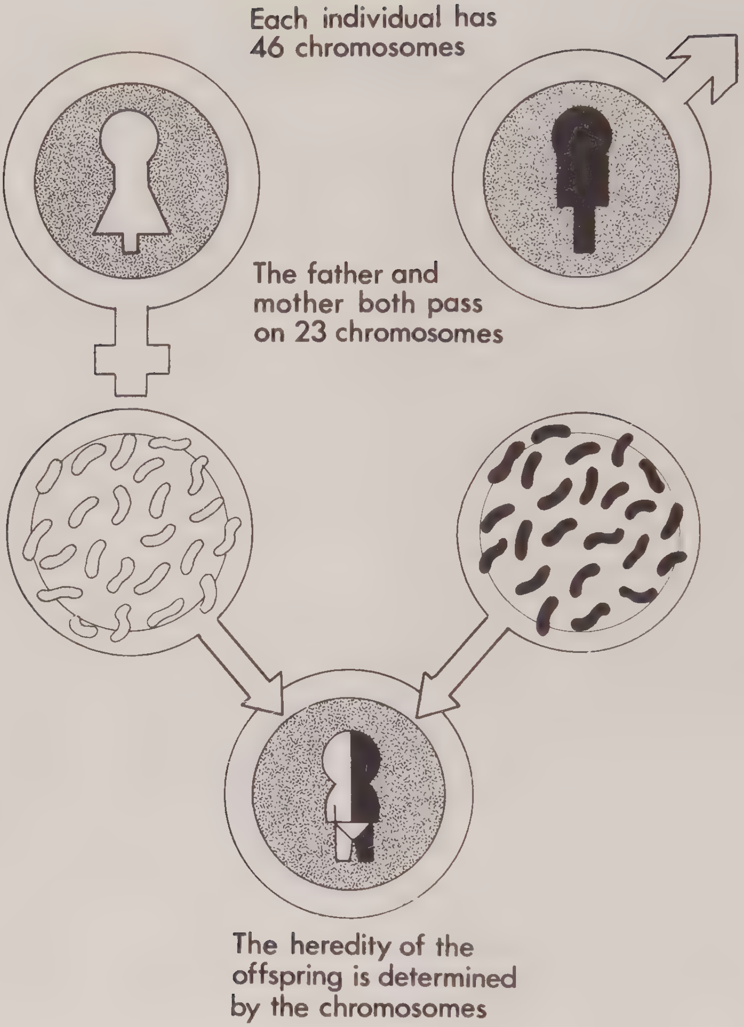
## TOPIC 1.3 WHAT MAKES US DIFFERENT?

There are two main influences that help to make individuals different, heredity and environment.

**Heredity** means the things which are inherited and passed on from one generation to another. Your **environment** consists of your surroundings: your family, home, school, town, countryside, etc.

There are some important ideas or *concepts* which run through this book and which, as a student of social studies, you must try to grasp. Heredity and environment are two of these concepts. Heredity has helped to make you what you are. Do you look more like your mother or your father? If you look more like one of your parents,




Each individual has 46 chromosomes
The father and mother both pass on 23 chromosomes
The heredity of the offspring is determined by the chromosomes

have you inherited any physical features from the other? Are there any birthmarks or other similarities? Have you the same colour hair or eyes? Was your father or mother tall or short at your age? Do you think intelligence is inherited? And what about temperament? If you play it cool, don't get upset and keep calm, are your parents built that way? Or are most of your family emotional people who find it difficult not to fly off the handle at the least provocation? Each day you learn new things about your environment. As their surroundings change, so people change. Your personality is influenced by people and things around you. There were no colour television sets when your father was a boy, but young children today take colour television for granted. How can television change people and alter their lives?

We shall continually return to the concept of environment, as we reinforce and expand our knowledge. A baby can understand some things about its environment although it does not know what the word means. At first the baby is most aware of its mother. Before very long its father and brothers and sisters become part of its life; the influence of these people depends upon how frequently they appear on the baby's scene. If the baby's father is only present for a few moments at bedtime he will be less important than a young brother or sister who is at home all day. The people and things amidst which the baby lives help to mould its individual personality. It has to learn to live with them and to live as an individual within the community. He or she has to learn to live with other people.

But there are some **influences** upon the baby's life that affect it even before it is born. A baby who

Do you want a cigarette
more than you want your baby?

When a pregnant woman smokes she puts her unborn baby's life at risk.

Every time she inhales, she poisons her baby's bloodstream with nicotine and carbon monoxide.

Smoking can restrict your baby's growth inside the womb. It can make him underdeveloped and underweight at birth.

It can even kill him.

In just one year, in Britain alone, over 1,500 babies might not have died if their mothers had given up smoking when they were pregnant.

If you give up smoking when you're pregnant your baby will be as healthy as if you'd never smoked.

**The Health Education Council**

remains too long in its mother's womb will suffer from shortage of oxygen, but children who are born prematurely may not be handicapped in this way, and it is known that several geniuses of the past have arrived early. In the Republic of South Africa there are children who are very intelligent because doctors supplied them with extra oxygen in the last few weeks before birth.

Recent research has shown that on average a child whose mother smokes during pregnancy will be about one centimetre shorter than normal at the age of seven and roughly four months behind others in its reading ability.

### TOPIC 1.4 WHAT DETERMINES OUR ACTIONS?

All animals including humans are born with certain **instincts.** There are two main instincts from which most actions follow: preservation of self and preservation of the species.

These instincts do not have to be learnt, so we call them **innate motives**. Can you think of other forms of instinctive behaviour?

If you have ever kept guinea pigs as pets you will know that they are very timid animals. At the approach of a stranger a guinea pig will crawl under any straw it can find in its hutch and keep very quiet. There are at least three possible explanations of the guinea pig's behaviour:

1. It responds in the same way as a machine – the sight of a possible enemy sets it working.
2. It thinks things out, i.e. it says to itself, 'This chap looks like a nasty piece of work. I must

make myself scarce.'

3. It acts instinctively, i.e. in the same way as we duck if somebody pretends to throw a stone at us.

Some psychologists think that animals do react in a similar way to machines, but the majority think that the behaviour of a human being is different from the working of a machine. A machine works with no purpose of its own. Your watch did not decide that it would tell the time. The purpose of its movement has been determined by the person who designed it. The guinea pig hides with a purpose in mind; it wants to be safe. It is not a machine but it is unable to think things out as humans can. It acts instinctively. Its natural instincts may be reinforced by past **experiences**. Other creatures, as well as humans, are able to conserve knowledge from the past. It has been found by experiments that if a worm is sent down a Y-shaped passage it is liable to go either way, but if it receives an electric shock when it goes to the right, after a time it will always select the left-hand route. Even worms can learn from experience.

### TOPIC 1.5 WE ARE CHANGED BY OUR EXPERIENCES

One of the main reasons why humans differ is that they have had different experiences. Experiencing is vital to human existence. A famous thinker called Descartes once said something that might be interpreted as 'I experience, therefore I exist'. What did he mean? He was pointing out the essential difference between animate (or living) things and inanimate objects. Does a brick have an experience if it is thrown at the head of a soldier in Northern Ireland? Obviously not, but the soldier would have an experience if he were hit on the head by the brick. The man who threw it would have an experience of pleasure at his success or of sadness if he felt sorry for what he had done. Experiences are made up of feelings, emotions and sentiments. I do not experience a decayed tooth, but I may experience toothache. Our experiences will make us different. Look at the picture. People will vary according to the events through which they have lived.

Have you ever spent some time watching from the window of a moving bus or train and yet not been able to remember seeing anything in particular? If this happens someone might say you have been daydreaming or have been in a 'brown study'. You can take things in through your **subconscious**. Jesuit priests used to say, 'Give us a child for the first seven years and we will have influenced him for the rest of his life.' About half of all we know is learnt in our first five years.

In Aldous Huxley's *Brave New World* babies are produced in test-tubes. The alpha-plus types do the brainy work while delta types are conditioned to do menial tasks without complaining. Those who control the world want deltas to work and not spend time reading books or enjoying such things as flowers. In his book *1984*, George Orwell described how the government kept people occupied by persuading them to hate an imaginary enemy.

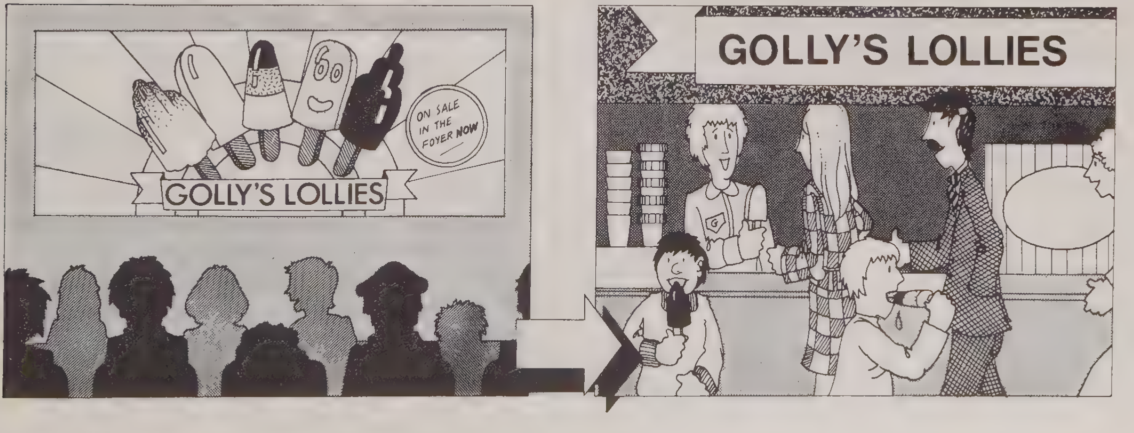
In the early stages of life we are influenced a great deal by our parents. Some children are lucky enough to have parents who talk sensibly to them and see that they gain rich experiences through books, visits and holidays. Others have to struggle along without these advantages; all the more credit to them if they become all-round, well-developed individuals! In adolescence we are influenced a lot by other teenagers. At work the environment of the shop or factory and the attitude of workmates will help to mould our characters. Libraries, museums and recreation grounds help us to develop. What other things may be provided for us to help our development?

Individuals are often influenced without being aware of it. You may think your views, ideas and beliefs are quite your own and that you thought of them all yourself. Yet we have learnt in this unit that before birth, and especially in the years of childhood which are barely remembered, we were constantly being influenced, so that most of us now fit in easily with other people.

Individuals who fail to adjust to their environment are often unaware of the reasons why they are misfits. Have you ever watched a hypnotist at work? Under a state of hypnosis (or under the influence of a truth drug), an individual may reveal experiences of which he apparently knew nothing. These experiences are dug up from where they are buried in the subconscious. Nobody knows for certain just how much past experiences have modified him as an individual.

An advertisement may be flashed onto a cinema screen so quickly that the eye cannot take it in although the brain can. If the slogan 'Go and buy Golly's Lollies' was flashed on the screen for a fraction of a second so that you were persuaded to buy a Golly Lolly, then you would be influenced by subliminal advertising. Although this practice has been banned by law, how would you know if it was being used against you? How many other things have changed your life without your knowing it?

Some have experiences they would like to forget


ON SALE IN THE FOYER NOW
GOLLY'S LOLLIES
GOLLY'S LOLLIES

## TOPIC 1.6 WHY IS HUMAN SOCIETY UNIQUE?

'I wish you weren't such a boar, Henry.'

Man is very different from all other creatures. What makes him so special? Animals can move, see, smell, hear and touch.

Modern man is the only creature concerned about what kind of being he is. He wants to know what makes him tick.

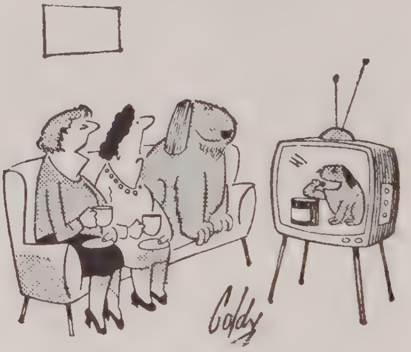
Here are some other things peculiar to man. Can you add to the list?

1. Young humans *develop* more slowly than young animals
2. Humans are best able to *adjust* to their environment
3. Mankind has the *lowest death rate*. (A smaller proportion of the species dies annually)
4. We are able to *think deeply*
5. Man is able to make up a *language* which is first spoken and then written and read
6. Although animals may make and use tools, only man is able to invent *machines*
7. People are by nature *religious* and judge each other's behaviour and conduct
8. Man organises a *society* with rules, written or unwritten, which determine the relationships between people within society

Let us compare human beings with the animal world. Can you think of an animal that can laugh? Can you think of any animals that can count? The more advanced the form of life, the longer it takes to come to maturity. It takes most human beings about a year to learn to walk, but young sheep walk within a few hours of birth. Humans cannot reproduce until their early teens. If you keep pets, how long does it take them to breed? How long is it before a young monkey is independent and able to manage without its mother? It takes longer than a rabbit, but not as long as a human. Human beings 'play' for many years, but as we play we learn. Children playing at being airline pilots or doctors or teachers are preparing for life in a modern community.

After mating, many animals stay with one partner, as do most humans. They have families. They feed and protect their young. Animals often remain with groups of others of their kind in the same way that we have our groups and gangs. We call this being gregarious.

Animals also adapt to their environment. A chameleon changes its colour to blend with its surroundings. Many animals make crude tools. Beavers build dams, but man is best at exploiting nature's resources. He is capable of designing a machine such as the Concorde. Why can't animals make machines? Animals are able to communicate with others of their species, but it needs a man – George Orwell in his book *Animal Farm*, for example – to give them the power to read, write and think.



'He only likes watching the dog-food commercials!'

## TOPIC 1.7 LIFE HAS ITS CYCLES

All life has its *cycles*: we are *born*, we *reproduce*, we *die*.

Between these three main stages of the **life-cycle**, there are intermediate stages. Where would you put childhood, learning, work, courtship, marriage, parenthood and old age? Which of these things are *not* associated with the animal world?

We have seen that the wind of **change** is always blowing. Modern children use far more words and expressions than the peoples of ancient tribes who experimented with language. Children today are able to build upon knowledge discovered by their ancestors. A modern youngster may know more about atomic physics than an extremely clever man of the past such as Isaac Newton. There have been many civilisations before our own. Archaeologists have discovered skeletons indicating that the Ancient Greeks carried out brain surgery.

> Life is a cycle of events. 'To everything there is a season, and a time to every purpose under heaven. A time to be born and a time to die.' (From the Book of Ecclesiastes)

And in between birth and death there is growth and playing, loving and fighting, working and caring. Throughout this book we shall see these aspects of **human society** recurring. We shall study the growth within the community of an individual, a group, a family, a school, a factory, and even a community of nations such as the European Economic Community (EEC). When children play they prepare for adult life; when adults play they bring back the pleasures of childhood. Our loving inspires us to do things which are *for society*: to be devoted parents, to serve the community, to protect others and keep the law, to look after the sick and the handicapped, to strive for peace. Our fighting instinct and aggression may cause us to act *against society*: to deprive others of things, to be noisy and violent, to exploit and pollute, to behave anti-socially. Organisations have sprung up to help people overcome **anti-social attitudes**. Some of these organisations are listed here.

National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children
Marriage Guidance Councils
National Council for the Unmarried Mother and her Child
Samaritans
Alcoholics Anonymous
Narcotics Anonymous
Royal Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals
Preservation of Prisoners' Right (PROP)
Prisoners' Wives' Service
Gamblers Anonymous
Amnesty International
Howard League for Penal Reform
Radical Alternatives to Prison (RAP)
National Association for the Care and Resettlement of Offenders

The cycles of life bring changes. Geographers study a natural cycle by which water, wind and weather change the landscape. Salmon have a fantastic life-cycle. From the river where they are born, they swim hundreds of miles out to sea. After about five years they return to where they were born and after fertilising thousands of eggs they die. It is miraculous because they are not able to observe the similar life-cycle of their predecessors. Still life goes on.

'Are you sure this is the right way?'

Do you think there is any truth in the following ideas about cycles?

1. J. B Priestley wrote plays based upon cycles of time; people could move backwards into the past or forwards into the future.
2. Astrologers think we are influenced by regular movements of heavenly bodies. Do you believe in horoscopes?
3. Some revolutions in human history have been connected with a supposed cycle of sunspot activity. Is this the idea of a lunatic? Even the word 'lunatic' comes from the 28-day cycle of the moon (lunar surface) around the earth!
4. The earth has cycles of extreme heat and cold; many scientists believe we are moving towards another Ice Age.
5. Stock Exchange shares tend to move in a cyclical way. Extremes of boom and slump were experienced between 1929 and 1933. This is called the trade cycle.

The effects of some of these cycles may be exaggerated but the growth of human society does indicate a cyclical pattern. It is a scientific fact that human reproduction depends upon a woman's menstrual cycle. The cycle of events which forms such a vital part of human development suggests that there is a **structure** to everything. In the same way as we study the structure of a poem or a book or a symphony we are going to examine the class structure in society, and the structure of the family, government, education, industry and other things of interest to the social scientist. We will try to discover the ideas and purposes that are vital to the life of the community. The word **community** means a group of people who share the same interests and values. It can be applied to a small group such as a village or a school, or to a large group such as a nation. In the early stages the picture may be a bit dim, but we will keep adding to our knowledge. We will go on until we get a clearer vision of society as it is and as we think it ought to be.

### EXPLAIN WHAT IS MEANT BY:

individuals
personality
character
achievements
behaviour
heredity
environment
influences
instincts
innate motives
experiences
subconscious
life-cycle
change
human society
anti-social attitudes
structure
community

### CASE STUDY: TOO OLD TO DIE

David was seven years old and his grandfather was eighty-seven. The difference in their ages seemed of little importance. David had never heard of the generation gap, and he was convinced that his grandfather was 'the greatest'.

David's father always had a lot of work to do, while his mother was often busy about the house. His grandad answered his most difficult questions with the utmost patience.

Although David was only seven he often wondered what life was all about. Why was he born? Where would he go, if anywhere, when he died? David decided to ask his grandad about the secrets of life and death. He began the conversation cautiously, pretending to be concentrating on a drawing he was doing.

'How old do people live to be, Grandad?' David asked.

Grandad thought for a minute. Why did the boy ask such profound questions? The old man had enjoyed a good life; death held no fears for him. Besides, he got so tired nowadays; he could do with a rest. Nature has her own ways of showing kindness. But how could he explain about a man's life-span to a mere seven-year-old? He resorted to an obscure reply. David would be content with that and let the matter drop.

'Well, David,' replied his grandad, 'the Good Book says that a man shall live to three score years and ten.'

'How long is that, Grandad?' asked David, without looking up from his drawing.

'It means about seventy years,' the old man answered. David continued with his drawing. There was a pause of several minutes.

The old man wondered if his grandson was really satisfied. The conversation seemed to have ended too abruptly. Surely he couldn't have got away with that one so easily? Was the boy just drawing, or was he drawing and thinking?

Suddenly David looked up from his book with a thoughtful expression.

'How old are you, Grandad?' he asked.

'Eighty-seven, my boy', the old man replied.

David studied him earnestly and looked more thoughtful than ever.

'I should think you are past dying, Grandad,' he said.

1. How would you try to explain the human life-cycle to a seven-year-old?
2. Suggest some reasons why a human life lasts, on average, approximately seventy years.
3. Why is it that the very old and the very young often get on well together?
4. In what ways have you changed during your lifetime? What are the main ways in which you could change for the better in future years?

### FOLLOW-UP

1. Make a list of your main needs under the headings: physical, mental, emotional, spiritual.
2. Write a short story about an individual who behaved
   *either* (a) instinctively
   *or* (b) in accordance with what he had been taught.
3. Give the main stages in the life-cycle of *one* of the following:
   (a) a baboon (c) a frog
   (b) a butterfly (d) a wasp
4. Copy the following list of individual characteristics and then:

(a) Put a cross against those which apply to you.
(b) Ask a schoolfriend and one of your parents to put crosses against points which they associate with you. (Fold the paper before they make their choices, so that the other crosses are not visible.)
(c) Compare the three assessments. What have you learnt about yourself as an individual?

| *Characteristic* | *Self* | *School-friend* | *Parent* |
|---|---|---|---|
| conceited | | | |
| easily bored | | | |
| cheerful | | | |
| bossy | | | |
| sympathetic | | | |
| temperamental | | | |
| conscientious | | | |
| snobbish | | | |

5. Read this extract:

‘At home the fifteen-year-old’s drive for independence and his moodiness render him difficult – sensitive, touchy, with a tendency to make biting remarks. Such attacks may be expressed in loud outbursts following the imposition of a restraint or a complaint by a parent that a son or daughter is not doing his or her bit. When worsted in an argument the fifteen-year-old may rush into his bedroom, slamming the door hard as a gesture of defiance. Sometimes hostility may be expressed by a cold stare, or a verbal quip, as with the girl who said, “I see you are reading that book on the sixteen-year-old. Well, I’m going to read it too, and when I’m sixteen, I’ll act just the opposite to what the stupid book says.”

‘It would be incorrect to paint a wholly adverse picture of the fifteen-year-old and his parents. There are too many positives for that. The keen observer notices subtle changes taking place in parents; for example, a mother’s gesture of deference to her son’s greater knowledge when she asks for information on a technical matter which he has been studying. Such gestures please fifteen-year-olds immensely, and are probably an excellent way of reducing difficult behaviour of the kind described.’ (*Children growing up* by John Gabriel)

In what ways can parents make it easier for teenagers to pass through what is often called a ‘difficult period’?

### ACTIVITIES

1. Draw up a personal memorandum which applies to you. Add five points not included in the personal memorandum on page 12.
2. Collect advertisements from recent magazines which appeal to your
   (a) sense of *adventure*
   (b) feeling of *affection*
   (c) craving for *ambition*
   (d) dislike of *bad temper*
   (e) instinct of *curiosity*
3. Design a cartoon strip to illustrate the human life-cycle.
4. Collect photographs of relatives from both sides of your family.
   In what ways do your features resemble
   (a) your father’s side?
   (b) your mother’s side?
5. Cut photographs from recent newspapers illustrating examples of people who are
   (a) for society
   (b) anti-society

### CSE QUESTIONS

1. *The Individual and Society*
   Why are individuals different from each other? What are the most important factors which cause people to behave differently?
   (How important are the following: childhood, parents, education, social class, people we mix with as adolescents, the work we do?) (Middlesex Regional Examining Board for CSE, Social Studies)
2. (a) Why are the first five years of life considered so important?
   (b) Explain what can be done by parents and the community to help a child’s development in these years.
   (Metropolitan Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
3. In the modern industrial society, many different influences are at work in shaping the personality of the young person. Describe these influences and suggest what organisations there are to help overcome anti-social attitudes.
   (East Midland Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
4. (a) What do the words ‘heredity’ and ‘environ-

ment' mean?

(b) Name *three* characteristics which are passed on through heredity.

(c) What sort of environment do you consider important to a child in the first five years of life?

(Metropolitan Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)

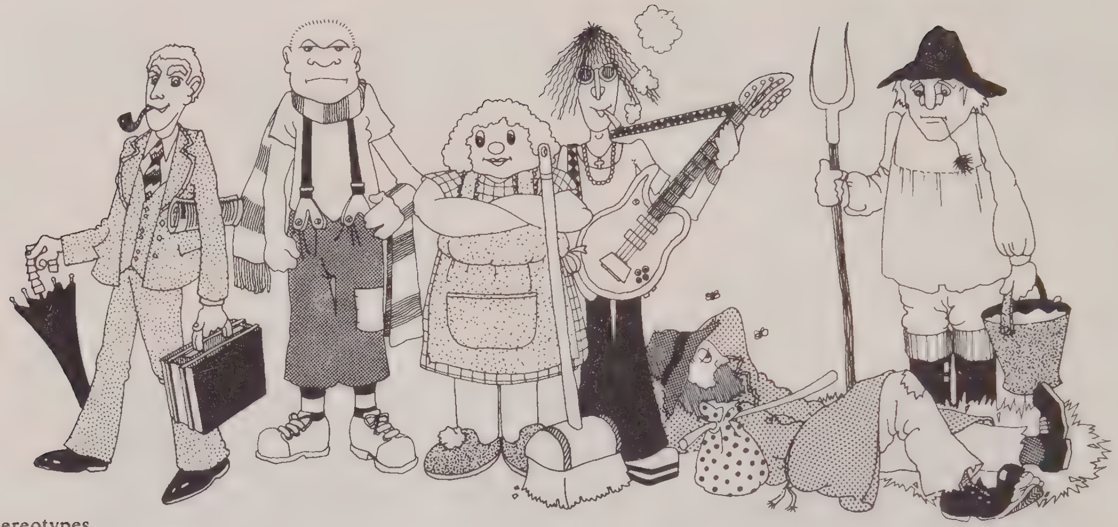
# Unit 2 *THE GROUP*

## TOPIC 2.1 TEENAGERS

Bob's gang

These youngsters have a lot in common. They are about the same age. Bob and Tim are sixteen, Joe is fifteen, and Chris is fourteen. So they are teenagers. They are all boys, who live on the same estate, go to the same school and share their own language or slang. Bob, Tim, Joe and Chris enjoy each other's company. There are no people with whom they would rather be. Bob is the natural leader and initiates most of their 'rules' and customs. He likes the group to be called 'Bob's gang'. The word 'gang' is sometimes used as a term of abuse by older people who consider that a gang of teenagers must be an anti-social lot. It is true that members of a 'gang' of thieves are not the most responsible people, but a 'gang' of roadmen or building workers are a pretty useful group. So there is nothing much wrong with the word 'gang'. It depends on how it is used and the associations that go with it. The classification of a number of teenagers as an irresponsible gang is known as stereotyping. Some adults **stereotype** all teenagers as good-for-nothing vandals just because of the behaviour of a few.

In Unit 1 we considered how individuals differ. It would be very dull if an individual had to live on his own. A lively human being must have people



Stereotypes

with whom to talk, eat, play and sing. What is the use of a new joke unless you can share it with friends? You need friends to laugh with. Even our anti-social deeds are usually performed as **group activities**. Bob's gang has the occasional fight with another gang. The same things that stir the individual are the basis of group activity. Groups are motivated by the driving forces of loyalty, obedience, sympathy, friendship and the need to be approved of. Human motives can be considered in greater depth as we study groups. You cannot be aware of feelings such as duty, morality and respect unless you are a member of a group.

There's a lot that could be said in favour of Bob's gang. The members of the gang are more influenced by one another than by parents or school or newspapers or anything else. They are members of a **peer group**. This is a term used to describe a group of friends of similar age who meet together frequently. In their very early years the members of Bob's gang were completely dependent on their mother or father and in their primary school days they relied on their teacher. Now they look to one another for strength and support. There is nothing wrong with this. They have the same background, the same likes and dislikes. It is perfectly natural for teenagers to group together. They form just one of the many groupings in society. All groups have a structure and a purpose.

## TOPIC 2.2 ATTITUDES TOWARDS GROUPS

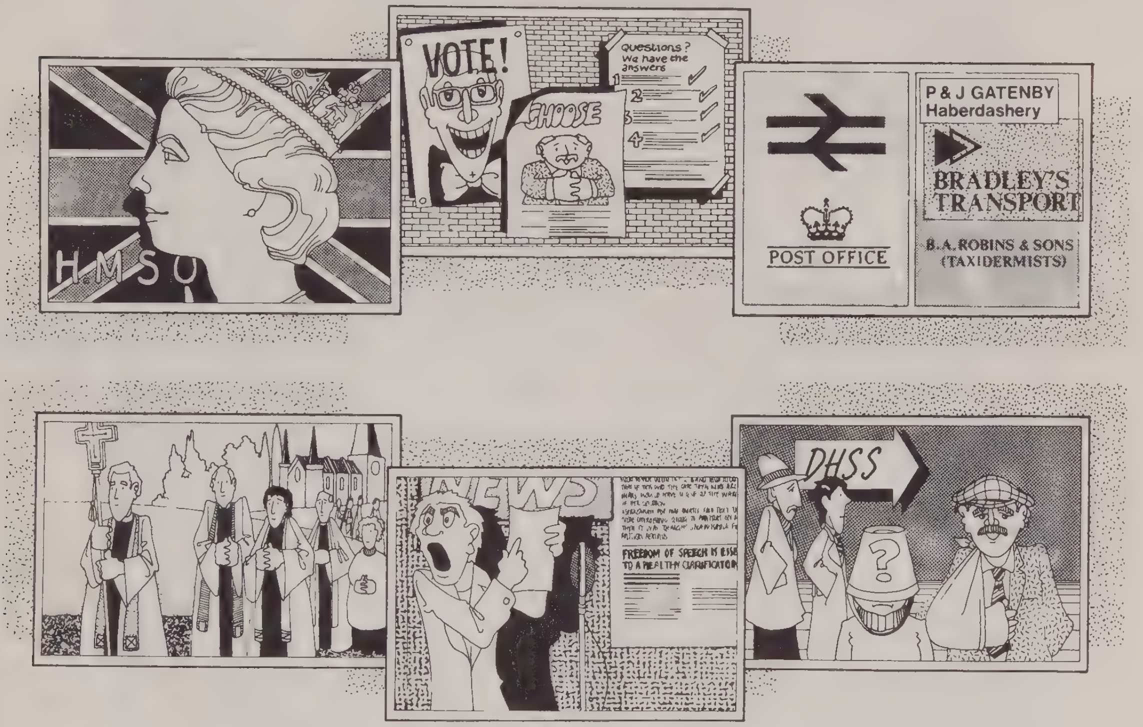
Like teenagers, other members of the community form groups. We may think of some of these groups as being *for society;* they are made up of people who conform to the rules and customs of present-day society. Others are *against society* because their members do not accept many of the standards and values of the society in which they live. They may be called **deviant groups.** Teenager groups who commit crimes may be called **delinquent groups.**

Ideas about deviancy depend upon the community in which we live. As individuals and communities change (see Unit 1), so the groups within a community will change. Much depends on the overall structure of the community. The table opposite summarises some of the main features of life in Britain today. Can you add to the list?

We have space only to consider the above structure in relation to some of our main themes. Groups such as the Scouts and the Royal British Legion swear allegiance to the Queen, whereas in Britain a group of republicans might be considered deviant. Groups of people are considered **negative groups** or **out-groups** if they are out of step with current opinions. Today our main political groups support democratic government, so Fascist groups are deviant. In the early part of this century the Suffragettes were treated as deviants by men whose idea of democracy was that only they should have a vote. Marxist groups may be thought deviant because they want the British economy to be run on communist lines. How do we regard groups of Roman Catholics, Scientologists, Mormons, Atheists and witches? Many years ago groups of witches were put to death. Groups that are in favour because they agree with contemporary standards are called **in-groups**.

THE BRITISH WAY OF LIFE

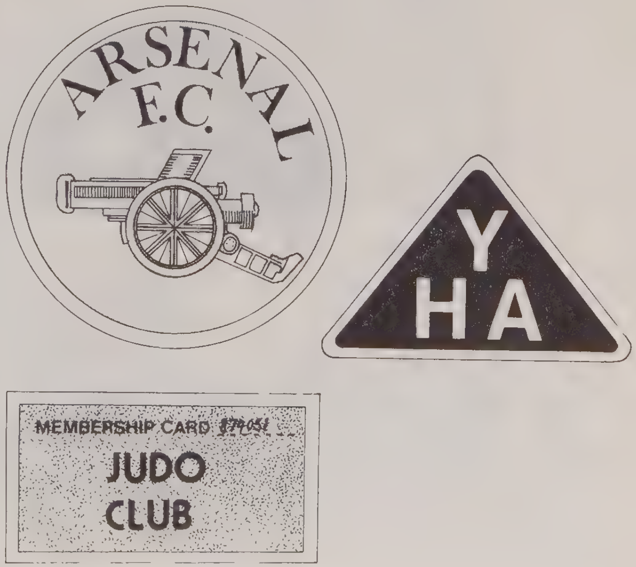
| | |
|---|---|
| 1. Monarchy | The Queen reigns but does not rule |
| 2. Democracy | Free elections |
| 3. Mixed economy | Businesses owned either privately or by the state |
| 4. Protestant religion | Most churchgoers are Anglicans or Nonconformists |
| 5. Freedom of expression | Free speech, press, TV and radio |
| 6. Welfare state | No one should suffer severe hardships |


H.M.S.O.
VOTE!
Questions? We have the answers
CHOOSE
POST OFFICE
P & J GATENBY
Haberdashery
BRADLEY'S TRANSPORT
B.A. ROBINS & SONS (TAXIDERMISTS)
NEWS
FREEDOM OF SPEECH IS ESSE
TO A HEALTHY CLARIFICATION
DHSS

TOPIC 2.3 WE BELONG TO MANY GROUPS

Although Bob spends much of his time with teenage friends, he belongs to many other groups in the community. Bob has joined the fan club of a famous pop group. He supports Arsenal Football Club, and he attends a karate group. Look at Bob's badges. To what other groups does he belong? Bob is also associated with lots of groups which do not have badges or emblems.

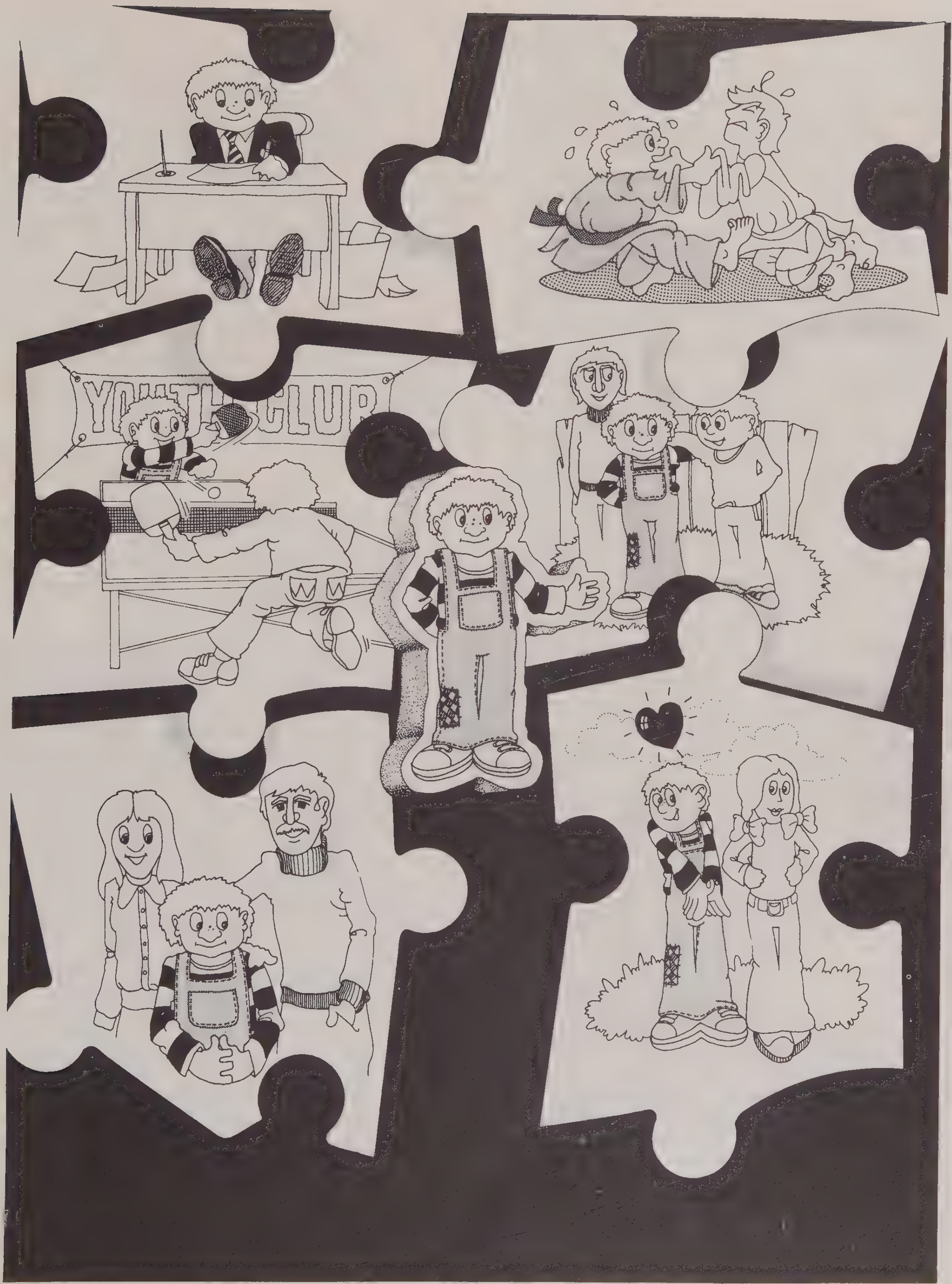
Sally is Bob's steady girl-friend: Bob and Sally form a group of two. Sociologists refer to a group of two as a **dyad**. This is the smallest possible group in a community. If they ever become engaged Sally will wear a ring as a sign that their group is likely to be lasting. A marriage licence would signify a more permanent grouping. When Bob's


ARSENAL F.C.
Y
HA
MEMBERSHIP CARD
JUDO
CLUB

Bob and Sally

elder sister was married recently the photographer was anxious to take a family group. Normally Bob lives with his parents, brother and younger sister. They are looked upon as a group by their neighbours. If one of the family does something wrong, Bob says the blame rubs off onto the rest of them. At the wedding the family group was extended to include not only mothers, fathers, brothers and sisters, but also uncles, aunts, cousins, nephews, nieces.

Bob's father belongs to many groups outside the family. He has joined a trade union and attends the branch meetings. He is also a member of a political party. He is one of a group of singers in a local choir and leads a church discussion group. Bob's mother helps to run a playgroup and acts as treasurer for the Townswomen's Guild. Bob's father and mother play different parts or **roles**



One man in his time has many roles

depending upon which group they are attending.

At school Bob is a member of Tutor Group 5/12. The '5' stands for fifth year; there are fourteen groups in his year and Bob is in Group 12. There is no disgrace in being in Group 12; it is a group number used for registration and Tutor Group meetings. His Tutor Group 5/12 has a member of staff who specially looks after them. Bob's school is very concerned with pastoral care, and each week his Form Tutor gives a certain time for interviews with members of his group. Tutor Group 12 has a kind of team spirit which increased when they won the fifth-year football cup last term. This was presented at the weekly assembly for fifth-year tutor groups. Even the fifth-year is a loose type of grouping with certain loyalties that are apparent when the fifth-year faces the sixth-year group or the fourth-year group. For school work, Bob is in various teaching groups where he mixes with other fifth-formers from Groups 1 to 14. The members of the teaching groups vary depending on whether the subject is Mathematics, Social Studies, English, Economics, etc. These are known as **formal groups,** because the members do not select their companions; youngsters playing in the park would make up an **informal group.**

### TOPIC 2.4 GROUP CUSTOMS AND RULES

Bob's gang has no written rules but the boys have an understanding about how they will behave. They observe certain **customs**. Like all normal boys they are very interested in girls but it would be unthinkable for any of them to bring a girl-friend when their gang or group meets.

'You can be yourself with your mates.' 'I like going out with the boys.' 'You can have a laugh.' 'We always have a giggle when we're together.' (From *Adolescent Boys of East London* by Peter Willmott)

Why should anybody give up some of his individual identity to fit in with the ways of a group? Perhaps he would no longer be allowed to belong if he did not conform with the standards of the group. These standards of behaviour are

A group of young Christians

known as **norms**. When trade unionists strike they expect all their fellow workers to come out. Those who remain at work are called scabs or blacklegs and they may be sent to Coventry (i.e. other workers will refuse to speak to them). This may be a childish thing to do but there is a good reason for it. Workers are less likely to win their case if they fail to stick together, and they know blacklegs will accept wage increases that the unions succeed in getting even though they have not suffered the hardships of the strikers and their families.

It is unlikely that you would be thrown out if you talked during a church service. But a group of Christians taking part in worship are likely to sit quietly. It is often their custom to kneel, bow their heads and close their eyes when they pray. What other practices might they observe? What clothes do the clergy wear as symbols of group identity?

### TOPIC 2.5 OUR GROUPS CHANGE US

We are influenced by the groups to which we belong. We learn to adapt to groups both large and small, to the community as a whole, to the school, to the family. We call this process **socialisation**.

A boy who joined a group of skinheads was socialised into becoming a skinhead. He shaved his head and wore bovver boots, jeans and braces. He learnt to think and behave like a skinhead.

People who join the National Front Party mix with its supporters and accept the views of this minority group.

A member of the Salvation Army wears a uniform which identifies him with the group. He is expected to accept the customs and the values of the group. This is what socialisation is all about.

The process of socialisation carries on from the cradle to the grave. As you pass from one group to another you are continually changing. It is natural that you will join different groups. There is a life-cycle (see Unit 1) of group membership. You have no choice about your first group. You originated as a member of a family. You were most likely born into it. It would be unusual for anyone to go to a home down the road and say. ‘May I belong to your family?’ You probably had little choice in selecting the childhood group with whom you played; membership of the group depended upon

A group of skinheads

A National Front rally

A group of Salvationists

who lived in the neighbourhood. Would you describe your neighbourhood as working-class or middle-class? We see again the importance of environment which we studied in Unit 1.

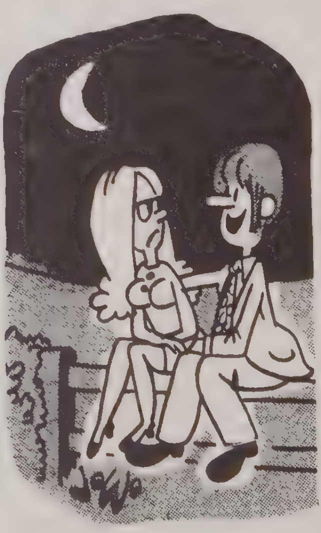
Now you are a teenager, how much do you think you have been affected by your environment and how much by heredity? No doubt you have been influenced by a combination of both. We learn *a way of life* which is influenced by past generations. We call this **culture**. How does your school teach you the culture of your community?

You have a choice about some of the groups you belong to at school. There may be groups for drama, fencing, chess, stamp collecting, radio, etc. What activity groups exist at your school? When you leave school you may decide to work in a factory or office. You may go to college full-time or part-time. If you get married you will have to select a partner and be accepted by your partner. These changing groups will bring changing relationships. If you play for a football club or join a pop group your personality will be changed by others in the group. Some people are good joiners but poor stickers. They join lots of groups but don't remain with any for very long. They will be influenced by lots of people but the impression made upon them is not likely to be so lasting as that made upon an individual who is a loyal and long-standing member of a group such as a political party or a church. Whatever group you join you will be affected by relationships with other members of the group and by relationships between your group and other groups.

### TOPIC 2.6 RELATIONSHIPS

Bob and Sally usually get on well together. They share many interests. They live in the same neighbourhood, go to the same school, like the same discs and pop groups. They have a good **relationship**. But occasionally their relationship becomes strained.

Sometimes an argument develops because Bob supports his football team on Saturday and says



'All right, let's get married. I'll marry Rachel Watkins, and you marry Herbert Potter!'

he doesn't want to be dragged round the shops. Sally realises that she has to compromise to maintain a good relationship, so she has found a job on Saturday afternoons. Bob goes out with his gang less frequently because he takes Sally to the cinema; he is also studying more in the evenings because Sally urges him to get on. They are both learning that good relationships are a matter of give and take. It's no good one of them taking everything and expecting the other to give everything. It may be fairly easy for two people to establish a good relationship, but it is more difficult as the group gets larger. Perhaps that is why some people think, 'Two's company, three's a crowd.' As groups get larger there is a greater need for compromise.

When Sally first took Bob home to meet her parents, they were not too keen on Bob and he was a bit doubtful about them. But they are all learning to accept one other for what they are. Do you think they will change one another so that they are all more like what the others want them to be?

It cannot be expected that everything will always run smoothly. Sally was upset when Bob dated her best friend. In the end, she forgave him. Good relationships depend upon people not holding grudges.

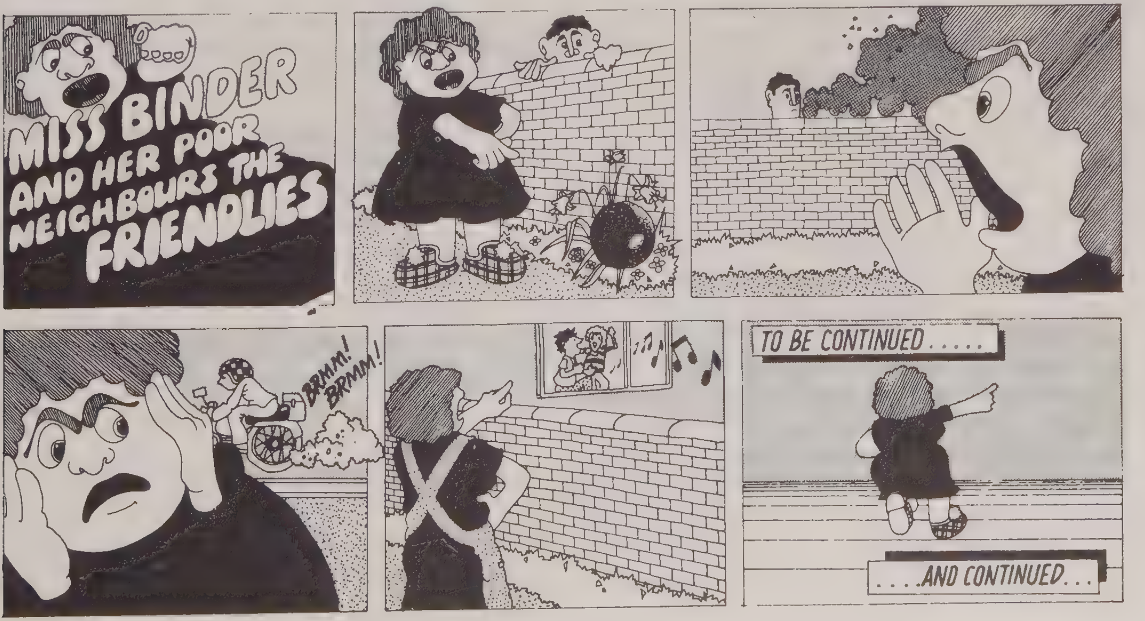
Look at the strip cartoon below. Who do you think is mainly at fault in these quarrels? It would seem to be Miss Binder, but the Friendly family still have to live next door. They can't afford to pack up and move every time there's a row. So they do their best to adapt to Miss Binder. They don't intend to upset her, but Mrs Friendly says that she 'won't be put upon'. No doubt she is right to stand firm sometimes, or Miss Binder would keep on grumbling and life would be unbearable. The Friendlies have found that they must stand up for their rights courteously. Good relationships do not mean always giving in. Have you ever found that relationships have improved after a terrific row? It seems to clear the air!

### TOPIC 2.7 GROUP RELATIONSHIPS

Political parties make up some of the largest groups. The following table shows the number of people who voted for the three main parties in the General Election held in October 1974:

| *Political party* | *Millions* |
|---|---|
| Conservative | 10½ |
| Labour | 11½ |
| Liberal | 5½ |

It is no good quarrelling every time you meet somebody who supports a different political party, although we must have a certain amount of disagreement in a free country. You must be ready to listen to another point of view. You might


MISS BINDER AND HER POOR NEIGHBOURS THE FRIENDLIES
BRMM! BRMM!
TO BE CONTINUED .....
. . . . AND CONTINUED . . .

possibly be wrong! We are free to argue.

We are more likely to elect the best possible government if people air their views. There must be a lively interchange of ideas. If you travel on buses or wait in queues you may get into a discussion. It is only by having your views challenged that you are likely to appreciate the other side of the argument.

But individuals must give up some of their freedom when they join a group. If you were on an empty beach you would be free to throw stones all over the place. But if you were on a crowded beach, your stone throwing would interfere with other people's freedom to play games safely or sunbathe without getting a split head.

The groups within a community must be ready to give up some of their freedom. If we belong to a **majority group** we must safeguard minority interests. The Jew who is living in a Christian country must be allowed to worship in his synagogue, keep his Sabbath on Saturdays and speak to his friends in Hebrew if he wants to.

## TOPIC 2.8 SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC GROUPS

The basic organisation of society is the group. Humans have always grouped together for social intercourse and for economic reasons. Early men formed **nomadic groups** which wandered over the countryside hunting, fishing and gathering food. Later, men settled down and lived in one place as **pastoral groups** or **agricultural groups**. The development of communities established in one place gave rise to a complex **group structure**.

After the Norman Conquest, William I divided the land of Britain among various groups. The people who came off best were the tenants-in-chief such as the abbots, barons, bishops, earls and knights. Then followed the mesne (or lesser) tenants, freemen, villeins, cottars and serfs. A social pyramid was built. Each group was of a slightly higher **social class** than the group below. They had more **status**. The poor serfs had no one below them. They were at the bottom rung of the social ladder. They were in what modern sociologists would call **socio-economic group** 5. They suffered from a birth-to-death inequality cycle. Those who are born into a poor home may suffer from a shortage of goods, an unhealthy environment and a poor educational start which may cause deprivation during their whole life-cycle. We still have a class structure today. The Registrar General of Occupations divides society into five main social groups (see page 34).

### EXPLAIN WHAT IS MEANT BY:

stereotype
peer group
primary group
deviant groups
delinquent groups
negative groups
out-groups
in-groups
dyad
roles
formal groups
informal groups
customs
norms
socialisation
culture
relationships
majority groups
nomadic groups
pastoral groups
agricultural groups
group structure
social class
status
socio-economic group

### CASE STUDY: SING AS YOU GO

Trevor was walking home after a night out with the boys. They had been drinking until about 11 o'clock at The Corkscrew. It was their regular local. Then they had gone to Eric's pad and had a few more pints.

Trevor was feeling pretty good – happy, but not fighting drunk. Eric and Eddy had told some good stories and he was chuckling to himself. There was a full autumn moon and Trevor kicked the leaves in the gutter. He liked to hear them rustle. Life was good. Trevor started to sing. He broke into his usual drinking song.

> 'There's an old mill by the stream,
> Nellie Dean,
> Where we used to sit . . .'

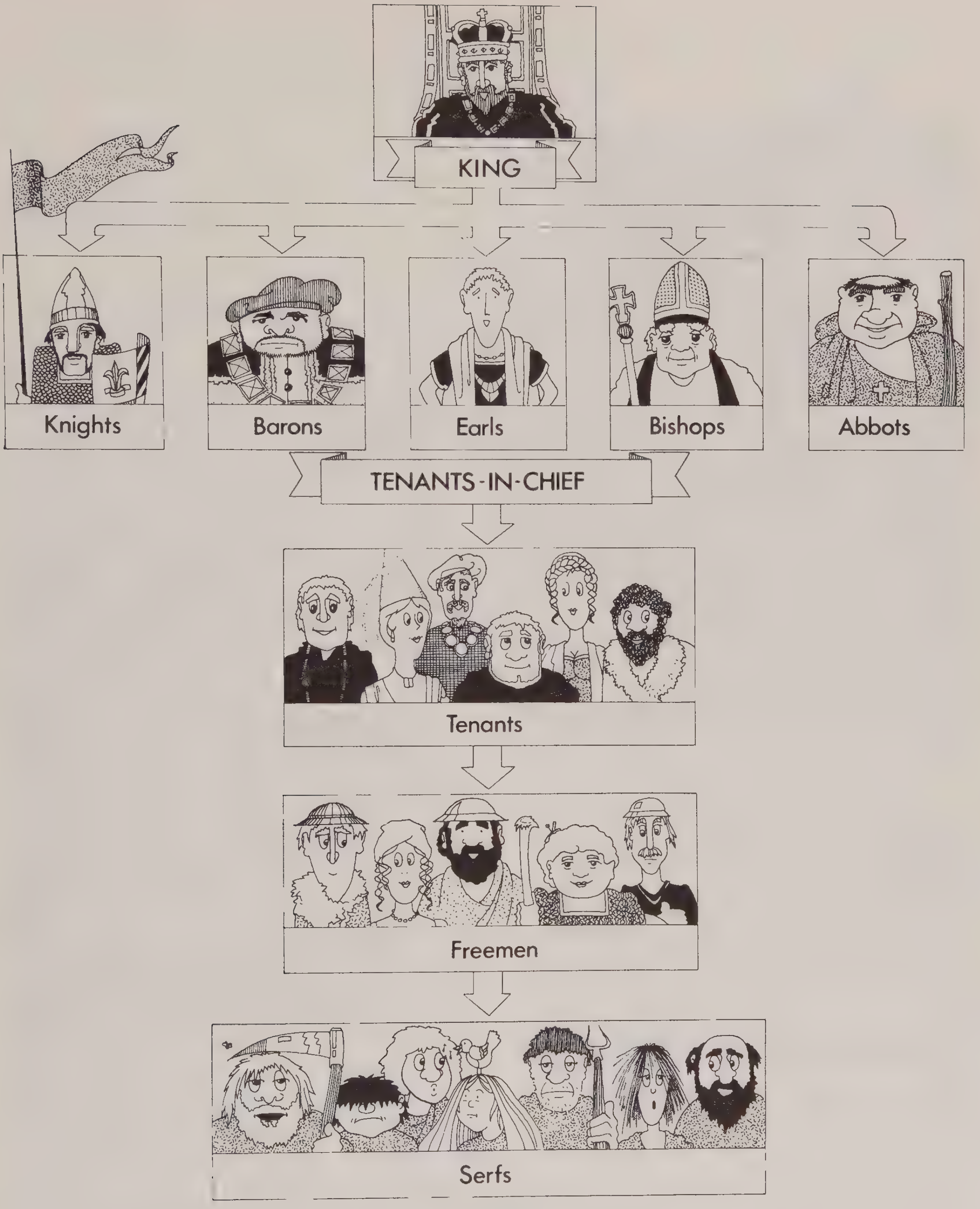
Trevor was just getting into full throttle when an upstairs window was opened noisily.

'Shut your mouth, you drunken yob; you'll wake the baby.'

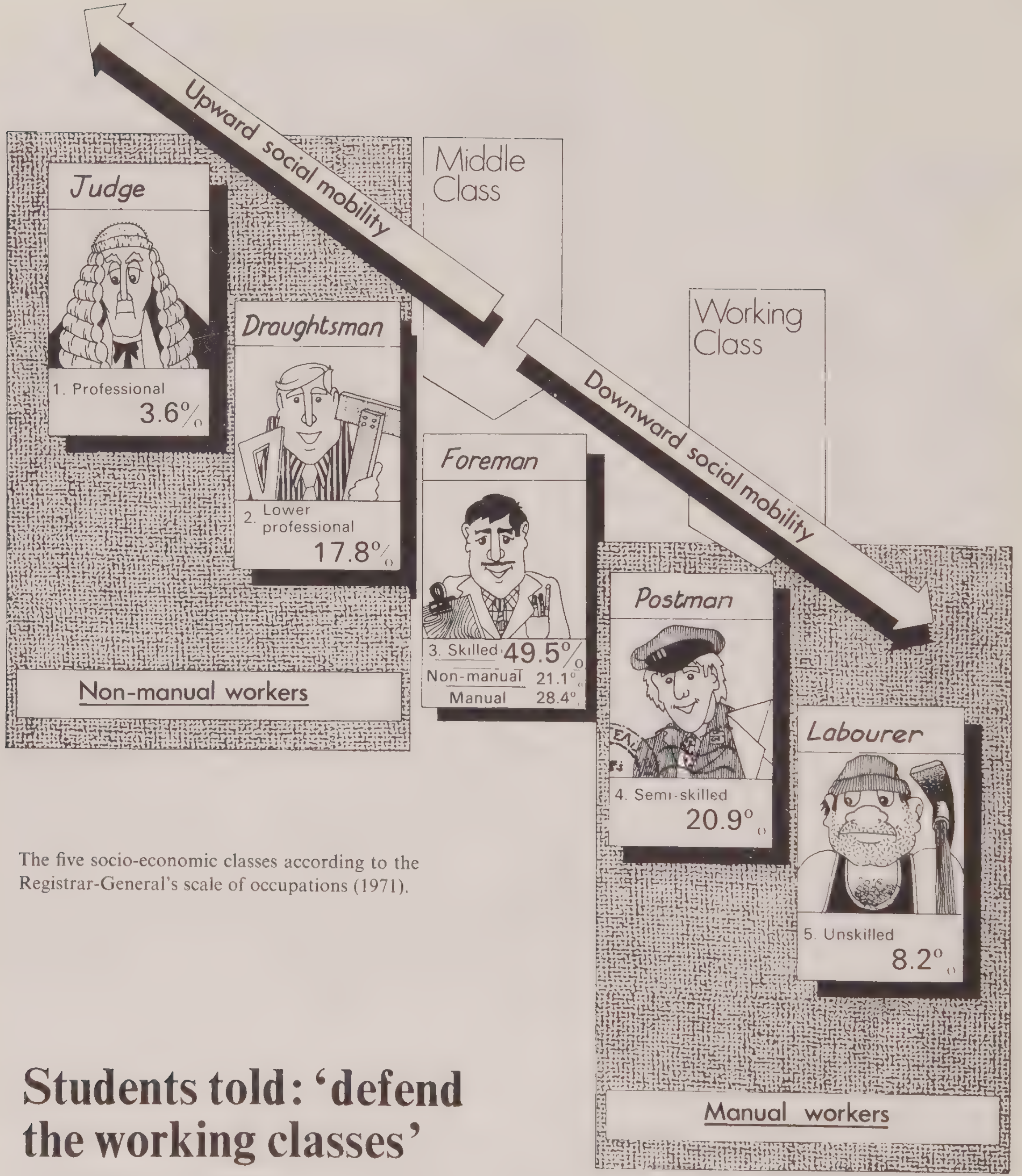
'A bloke can sing in his own street, can't he?' Trevor yelled back. 'It's a free country, isn't it?'

'If it's a free country, why isn't the poor little blighter free to enjoy her shut-eye, without every hooligan in the neighbourhood yelling his top off,' shouted the woman.

1. Who do you think was more in the right, and why?
2. In what better way could the woman have handled the situation?
3. On what occasions would Trevor be allowed to sing in perfect freedom?
4. What was the most recent occasion when you restricted somebody else's freedom to do something?


KING
Knights
Barons
Earls
Bishops
Abbots
TENANTS-IN-CHIEF
Tenants
Freemen
Serfs

The medieval class structure under the feudal system


Upward social mobility
Middle Class
Working Class
Downward social mobility
Judge
1. Professional
3.6%
Draughtsman
2. Lower professional
17.8%
Foreman
3. Skilled 49.5%
Non-manual 21.1%
Manual 28.4%
Postman
4. Semi-skilled
20.9%
Labourer
5. Unskilled
8.2%
Non-manual workers
Manual workers

The five socio-economic classes according to the Registrar-General's scale of occupations (1971).

## Students told: 'defend the working classes'

The student teachers were told that they will have to campaign to defend the rights of working-class children.

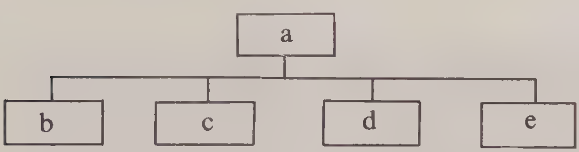
Crowded classrooms with inadequate equipment in undesirable schools would continue unless the Government had a change of heart and increased the proposed target for a 510,000-strong teacher force by 1981, said a paper on teacher supply written by Mr Alastair Stewart, deputy president of the National Union of Students.

## Middle class squeeze

The middle classes are being squeezed out of existence, the former Conservative Lord Chancellor, **Lord Hallsham,** said in the Lords yesterday.

## FOLLOW-UP

1. Choose a group with which you are familiar. Copy the diagram below and insert the following:
   - (a) name of the group
   - (b) badge emblems, uniforms, etc.
   - (c) aims
   - (d) interests
   - (e) achievements, etc.



2. The examples below show how language changes when used by specific groups. Write out the two passages in normal speech.

   (a) (*A group of RAF pilots talking in 1940*)

   'Was it a good show?'

   'It was wizzo. Two jerries went for a burton.'

   'Where's groupy?'

   'Afraid he put up a black, old boy. He nearly went in the drink and then he pranged his kite near a group of sprogs who were square-bashing on jankers!'

   (b) 'What y'think of my gear, man?'

   'Y'know that's trendy. Real way out. Makes me feel like a decadent square. Y'trying to relate to this Hippie thing or something?'

   'Don't know, man. Just trying to find the real me.'

   'Y'should get a pad of your own.'

   'No way, man. No bread.'

3. Look again at the photograph of Bob's gang on page 23. Which boy do you think looks most aggressive? Which one looks most friendly? Which one looks most easily led? Select one of the boys and use your imagination to write a character study. His attitude and his facial expression should give you a guide.

4. Read this passage from Joseph Heller's *Catch 22:*

   'Colonel Cathcart stopped in his tracks. "What atheists?" he bellowed. . . . "There are no atheists in my outfit. Atheism is against the law, isn't it?"

   "I'm not sure, sir," answered the chaplain.

   "Well, I am!" the colonel declared. "I'm not going to disrupt our religious services just to accommodate a bunch of lousy atheists."'

   In what way was Cathcart being illogical?

## ACTIVITIES

1. Collect press cuttings to illustrate the following:
   - (a) groups in uniform
   - (b) demonstrations with groups carrying placards
   - (c) a group acting in a violent way
   - (d) a group acting in a peaceful way
   - (e) some pop groups in the Top Ten
2. Design a badge to represent one of the following:
   - (a) women's lib
   - (b) weeny boppers
   - (c) hell's angels
   - (d) church unity
3. Conduct a census of your tutor group or class, using a pre-coded questionnaire with boxes. Use the five questions below and add five of your own.

   (a) *Sex?* Male = M ☐
   Female = F

   (b) *Leisure?* Mostly at home = H ☐
   Mostly out = O

   (c) *Hobbies?* Yes = Y ☐
   No = N

   (d) *Pocket money?* £1+ = P ☐
   £1− = M

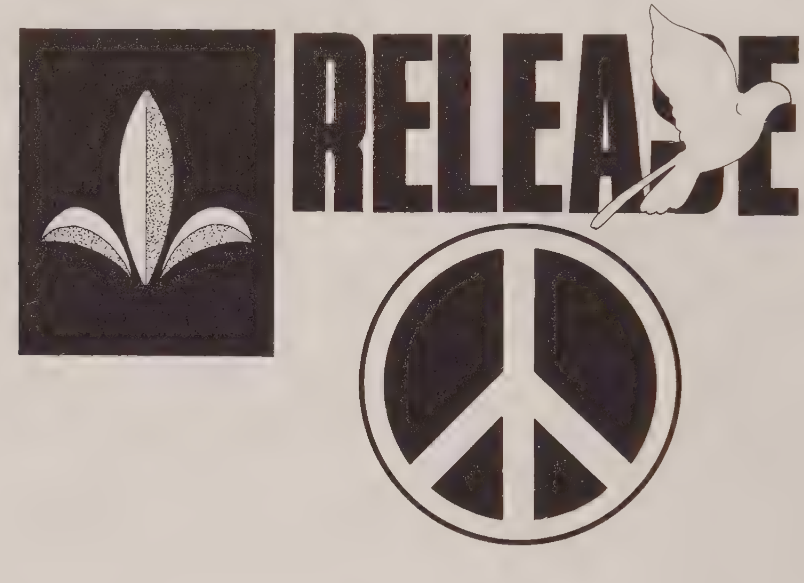
   (e) *Problems?* Go to parents = P ☐
   Go to teacher = T
   Go to others = O

4. Interview a volunteer from your group who says he is a 'loner'. Ask him to give reasons why he dislikes joining groups. Suggest some group activities to him and try to interest him in one. If possible, tape the interview so that any weaknesses in his arguments can be examined.
5. Use local libraries, reference books, newspapers and personal contacts to find out the following about the groups illustrated on p. 36:
   - (a) aims
   - (b) local membership
   - (c) recent activities

1. Describe a 'gang', group or club to which you or a friend belong. Why do people like to belong to such groups?
(Metropolitan Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)

2. In what ways is your behaviour influenced by other people? Why are people concerned about the approval of others?
   (Metropolitan Regional Examining Board for CSE, Social Studies)
3. In our complex ever-changing society, voluntary organisations (e.g. the Marriage Guidance Council) seem to find more demand for their services than ever. Write briefly about the work of each of the following organisations:
   (a) NSPCC
   (b) Shelter
   (c) Samaritans

   What have these organisations in common with each other? (East Midland Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)



# Unit 3 *MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY*

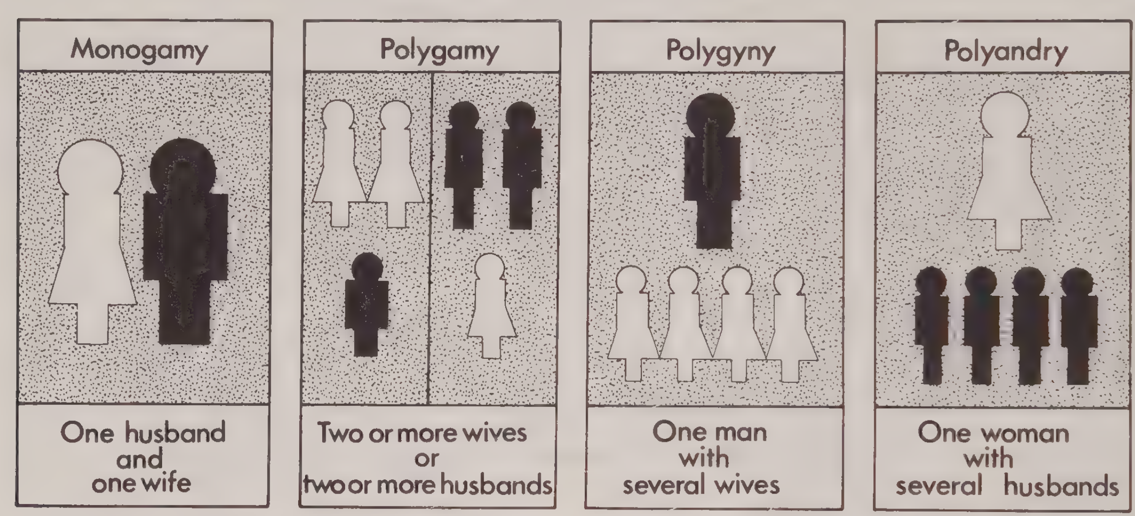
### TOPIC 3.1 MARRIAGE

In Britain marriage involves a group of two – a dyad. Later the group is likely to grow, because most married couples intend to have a family.

In Britain the husband usually goes out to work and brings home his wages to maintain the household. It is a modern practice, which is becoming increasingly common in the western world, for the wife to go out to work as well until the birth of the first child and to return to work when the children are of school age. The greater equality of men and women is changing marriage and family structures. We use the word **matriarchal** to describe a situation where the woman is boss. There are many variations of marriage arrangements.

More than three-quarters of the people of the world live in communities where custom, law or religion determine that a man or woman has only one marriage partner. This marriage structure is called **monogamy.** It has been said that where there's a good man, there's a good woman (his wife) beside him.

In some communities more than two people enter into marriage. This is known as **polygamy**. When one man has several wives it is called


Monogamy
One husband and one wife
Polygamy
Two or more wives or two or more husbands
Polygyny
One man with several wives
Polyandry
One woman with several husbands

85-year-old Khotso of the Transkei (Africa) with ten of his wives

Jones
FILM MAG

'But honey, if I loved Racquel Welch, I'd have married her, wouldn't I?'

**polygyny.** The early Mormon communities in Utah practised polygyny, and many Muslims practise it today. If there is a surplus of women some of them will be denied the natural function of having children unless men are permitted to have several wives. In this way a man may acquire not only wives, but also workers, property and status.

Some Eskimo women have more than one husband. This is known as **polyandry.** Eskimos live very dangerously and if one husband is killed, the other will look after the wife and children. The two husbands learn to share without enmity. They are friends rather than rivals. It is part of their socialisation. Good relationships are the result of compromise (see Unit 2); polyandry among Eskimos is determined by the environment (see Unit 1). Muslim wives find companionship: an older woman may be content to exercise seniority in household management while younger wives satisfy the husband's sexual desires.

The different structures of marriage depend upon the functions of the people concerned. The Melpa people of New Guinea are accustomed to a man having about three wives. The group forms an economic unit. The wives grow food and give the surplus to the husband who looks after the administration of the land, buildings and children. He is the chief or patriarch and the society is known as **patriarchal.**

You will pick your own marriage partner, but in Victorian times the **arranged marriage** was common among the upper social classes. Even today members of the British Royal Family may be closely guided in their choice of a marriage partner. **Endogamy** means marriage within your own social class or group. When this is practised people can often trace back their family tree by means of a geneological table. They are tied by **kinship.**

Who is your next of kin? When you are married, your wife or husband will be your next of kin. If you agree to ask all your family to your wedding you will be inviting all your kin. There is a structure of kinship by which blood relations are linked.

### TOPIC 3.2 IS THERE ANY FUTURE IN MARRIAGE?

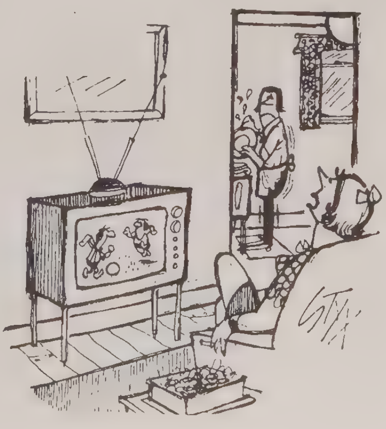
Some cynics belive that marriage is dying, or at least that it is very very ill, but more people are getting married in Britain than ever before. They are also getting married earlier.

There are more marriages, and more early marriages, but there are also more **divorces.** Can you think of any reasons why very early marriages could lead to an increase in the number of divorces?

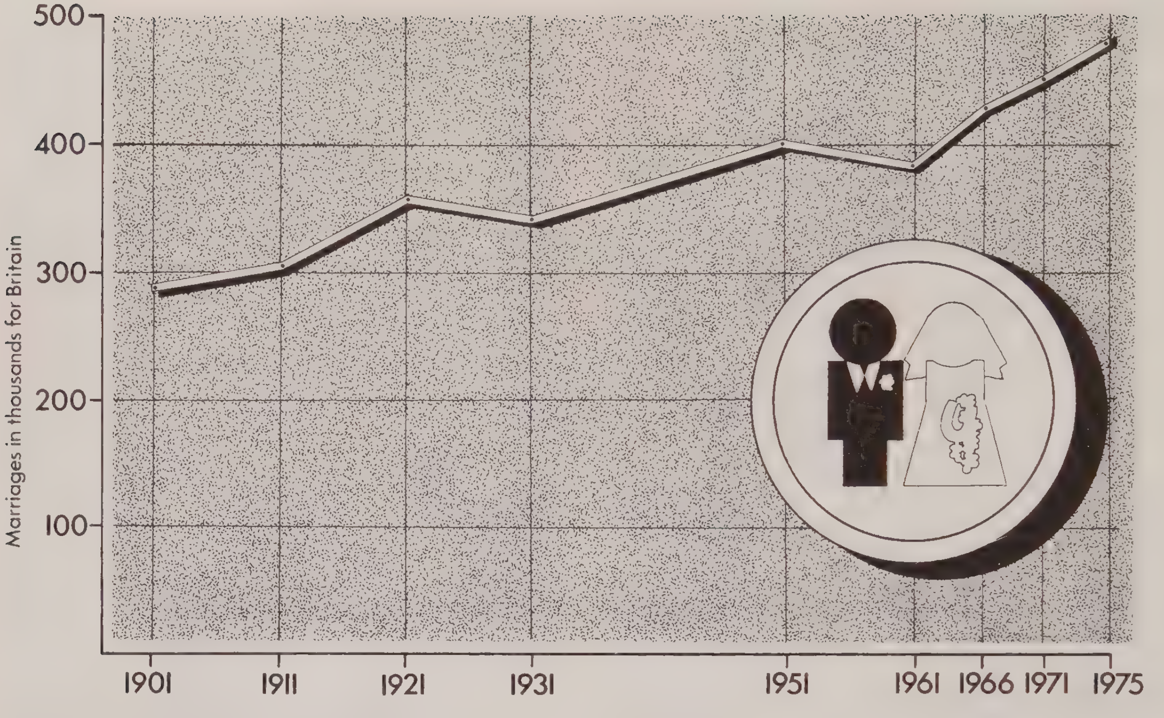
Can you add to this list of possible reasons for divorce?

Too many domestic chores
Falling in love with somebody else
Few common interests
Illegitimate child (before marriage)
Living with parents
Money worries
No children
Sex problems
Too young
Work (career) problems

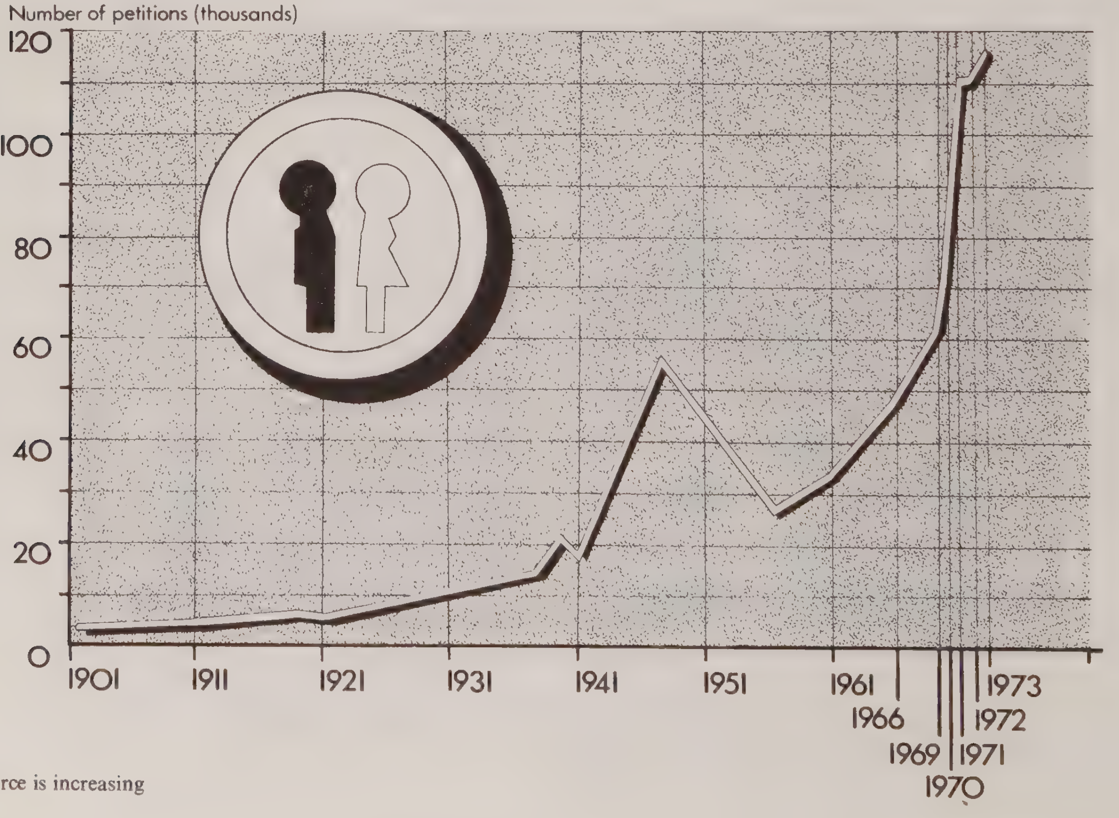
Is it a good thing to try to hold together a marriage which is really on the rocks? A successful



'You aren't missing much.'



More people are getting married in Britain



Divorce is increasing

marriage must be based upon the *social emotions* which we considered in relation to the individual. It relies upon such emotions as love, kindness, understanding and sympathy. When *anti-social emotions* such as hate, envy, malice and jealousy are uppermost, the marriage is likely to be in a bad way.

You will have heard tragic stories of broken homes, abandoned children or a single parent struggling to bring up children without the help of a partner. Is this worse than a patched-up marriage with continual quarrels and neglected children? It is an open-ended question. It has to be left in the air with the unfinished sentence, 'It all depends . . . .' Suggest some things it may depend on.

Many people believe that divorce is better than an unhappy marriage. A divorce rate of 93 per cent was once recorded in part of Malaya. It is simple for a Muslim male to divorce a wife. He has only to declare three times before witnesses, 'I divorce you.' It's all very unjust because Muslim wives are not allowed to divorce their husbands.

The only grounds for divorce in Britain is the 'irretrievable breakdown' of the marriage. This was made the only reason for divorce by an Act of 1969. It has made divorce much easier. As long as husband and wife agree they can get a divorce without having to prove cruelty or adultery (sexual intercourse between a married man or married woman and somebody other than their marriage partner).

Some groups within the community may be prevented from taking advantage of the new divorce law. The Roman Catholic Church sometimes threatens to expel divorced members, but those in authority are often compassionate and may grant a special dispensation so that divorced people are able to remain members of the group.

### TOPIC 3.3 FAMILY CYCLES

Look at the group in the photograph. Mother, father and children are known as a **nuclear family.** This is the simplest type of family and the most common in Britain and the western world. A nuclear family is an independent unit. The members are linked by blood, live in the same home and do many things together. If father decided to take a job in another place they would all move and carry on their activities there. They are linked by bonds of heredity (see Unit 1) and there are close ties of loyalty between them.

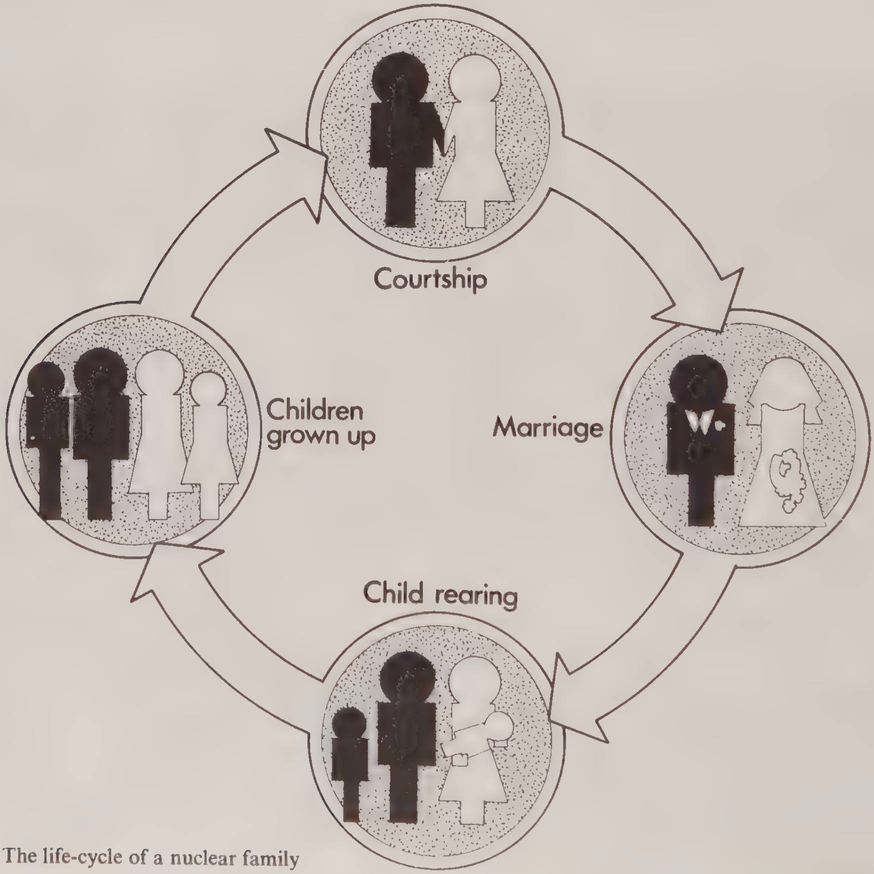
A nuclear family

As a girl grows up her loyalty to the family group will decrease. This applies to boys as well, but in these days of sexual equality we will take a girl as our example. Her interests outside the family circle will include friends of her own age (peer groups) and mixed-aged groups with similar interests. Eventually she is likely to form a close relationship with a man and they will decide to get married. The family with which she started is the **family of origin.** The girl now leaves home to get married and in time has a family of her own. This is the first round in the evolutionary family cycle.

She and her husband will start a **family of procreation.** Children born to her will regard this family as their family of origin. Notice the woman's new **role.** As a child she relied upon her parents. Now her role is that of mother and her children look to her for love and security. Her parents will enjoy their grandchildren. Baby-sitting will be a pleasure for them and of great benefit to the parents. So nuclear families become **interlocking families** as the life-cycles of several families become intertwined. Some relatives are linked by blood while others are linked by marriage.

The nuclear family was not always the most popular type in Britain. When there was a scarcity of houses, transport, and job opportunities away from home, it was customary for father, mother, children and grandparents to live together under one roof. This large family unit is called an **extended family.** In Saxon times the family was extended to include grandparents with their children, sons' wives, daughters' husbands, grandchildren, cousins, aunts, uncles, nephews, nieces. They all lived in the long hut. It must have been quite a gathering. There are still villages where all the people are related, although in civilised societies relations usually divide up into close-knit groups with separate homes.

In working-class urban areas such as Bethnal Green in the East End of London, the extended family often continues to be more important than the nuclear family; this is bound up with the wife maintaining a close relationship with her mother after marriage.



The life-cycle of a nuclear family

An example of the continually changing nature of society can be seen in the different attitude towards the older generation. When the extended family was the norm, the final stage in the family cycle was for grandparents to live with their grown-up children. Nowadays there is a tendency to echo the words of an old song–'they are far better off in a home'.

### TOPIC 3.4 FUNCTIONS OF THE FAMILY

As a member of a family, what do you get out of it? Or what contribution do you make to the life of the family? The two (i.e. giving and receiving) are closely related. The more you put into a thing, the more you get out of it. The following statements indicate the importance that people attach to the family:

'She comes from a good family.'
'He's all right – I know his family.'
'She has a good family background.'
'She's let down the family.'
'She's like one of the family.'
'He's a good family man.'
'He's the black sheep of the family.'
'Some mothers do 'ave 'em.'

It's time to show who wears the trousers

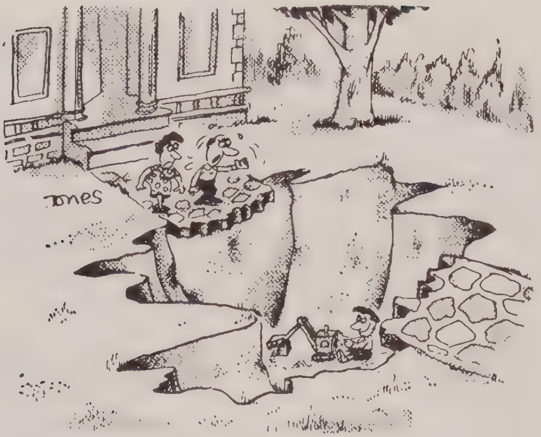
'His idea of marriage: With this ring I thee employ'

Which human motives (see Unit 1) do you think would make for a happy family? Family life is structured so that it fulfils certain functions. Some of the traditional functions of the family are now performed by the welfare state. The National Health Service helps in motherhood – before, during and after a birth. A pregnant woman obtains much more than material things such as vitamin pills and dried milk from an ante-natal clinic; she also gets advice, comfort and support. The National Health Service provides maternity hospitals, doctors, midwives. After the birth a health visitor checks that everything is all right.

At one time children received nearly all their meagre education from parents, older relations or friends of the family. A son's education was mainly vocational because he was expected to follow in father's footsteps. Mother taught her daughters

THE CHANGING FAMILY PATTERN

| *Years ago* | *Today* |
|---|---|
| 1. Marriage partners were picked by senior relatives | 1. Men and women choose their own partners |
| 2. There were a large number of children, several of whom were likely to die at birth or at a very early age | 2. Family planning allows a small number of children at carefully chosen intervals |
| 3. Father was head of the family and mother called him Mr | 3. Husband and wife usually treat each other as equals |
| 4. Children feared their parents and addressed their father as Sir | 4. Children are put before everything else; it is a **child-centred family** |
| 5. Large numbers lived together as an extended family which included a variety of relatives | 5. The nuclear family lives as a separate unit apart from other relatives |
| 6. Families were independent and willing to help each other in times of poverty and other troubles | 6. Families are self-supporting and may well look to the state (or neighbours) rather than to relatives for help |



'But I thought YOU were watching him!'

to cook, sew, mend and clean. This kind of education alone would be of little value today to the many boys and girls who desire to be highly skilled members of the community. They need specialist teachers and professional experts.

The table on page 43 shows some of the changes that have taken place in relation to the family.

### TOPIC 3.5 SETTING UP HOME

Some people make their home with a group of other families, e.g. in an Israeli kibbutz or a Chinese commune. People in the Amazon forests establish self-sufficient families so that they do not have to use money. The parents build a rough shelter and the family supply their own food and clothes.

In Western communities it is the norm for a married couple to set up home together in a house or flat, and then there are essential goods to be purchased such as furniture, carpets, curtains, bedding and other linen, crockery, cutlery and a hundred and one other things which are necessary in the running of a home. To begin with a young married couple probably think in terms of necessities, but they hope that later on they will be able to afford such things as central heating, a food mixer or a tumble drier.

Most married couples want a home of their own. Living with relatives creates all sorts of problems. Since there is a housing shortage and your finances will be limited, it is unlikely that when you are married you will get exactly what you want. These are some of the questions you ought to consider. Will you live

1. in a rented or mortgaged house?
2. near your job?
3. in a flat, bungalow, house or what?
4. near your relatives and friends?
5. in town or country?
6. near a good shopping area?
7. where there is a good bus service?

The first question is probably the most important. At first you may be forced to rent a place because of shortage of money, but it is important to consider the advantages of both renting and buying. Nearly half the families in Britain live in rented accommodation and just over half own their home, mostly with the help of a building society mortgage (which is a loan paid back over a number of years).

### TOPIC 3.6 FAMILY PROBLEMS

Many **family problems** arise from bad relationships. Young people develop minds of their own. When very young they happily accept the rules and views of Mum and Dad. Parents and young children often show uninhibited affection. They may think the world of one other.

As children grow older they often grow away from their parents. They find friends and interests outside the family circle and are less inclined to confide in parents, although a deep affinity may remain. Why is this? It is difficult for parents to stop laying down the law when they have been doing it for years. Teenage children may think it unreasonable to be told to be in by eleven o'clock,

| *Advantages of buying* | *Advantages of renting* |
|---|---|
| Eventually, no rent to pay<br>Property increases in value<br>Income tax relief<br>You can sell it and buy another<br>Decorate it in any way you like | You do not need any capital<br>Cheaper in the short run<br>You can soon move out<br>No mortgage round your neck<br>The cost of repairs and maintenance is often the responsibility of the landlord |

and retaliate by giving no information about where they are going except 'out'. Family rows develop over such things as pocket money, friends and who should do domestic chores. Unless they all learn to accept their new roles, the teenager may leave home to find a 'pad' of his or her own. The estrangement may not last long and the youngster will often return to the family a much more amenable person. Parents become educated too! An individual has to be given the chance to spread his wings. Sensible parents learn not to expect too much; the problems may ease as the 'prodigal son' realises his need for the family and the family shows understanding of his adolescent problems.

Problems frequently arise through lack of money. Married couples with young families may find it a struggle to manage. The husband is under stress as the only breadwinner. The **captive wife** may feel frustrated because she is prevented from furthering her career and she sorely misses her wage packet, which used to give her a sense of independence. She does not want to keep asking her husband for extra housekeeping money, but inflation makes home management very difficult indeed; she sometimes has to risk a row and ask for more. There are rates, rent or mortgage payments, electricity and gas bills. The young family's commitments increase as the children get older. The husband may accuse his wife of nagging for labour-saving devices, clothes, holidays, etc.

Relations with neighbours may not be harmonious especially if footballs land on next door's flowerbeds. Grandparents may cause friction if they spoil the children or favour particular members of the family. Difficulties can arise if a grandparent lives with the family. You should be able to add to the list below:

Quarrels may arise between wife and husband because of bad sexual relations. The Marriage Guidance Council has found that sex problems cause more divorces (about 30 per cent) than any other factor.

THINGS THAT IRRITATE

*The old*

noise (stereos)
modern fashions
late nights
being ignored

*The young*

nagging
stories of aches and pains
harping on the past
repetitive advice

'There, isn't this just as much fun as going out with the lads, dear?'

Many married people find that there has to be compromise and patience before a satisfactory sexual relationship is established. Only the minority find that it happens 'by magic'. Modern couples who are determined to find an answer to their sex problems may be willing to go together to a Family Guidance Counsellor or a Family Planning Clinic to seek advice.

EXPLAIN WHAT IS MEANT BY:

matriarchal
monogamy
polygamy
polygyny
polyandry
patriarchal
arranged marriage
endogamy
kinship
divorce

nuclear family
family of origin
family of procreation
role
interlocking families
extended family
child-centred family
family problems
captive wife

CASE STUDY: SIXTY GLORIOUS YEARS

Flo and Harry Pointer had enjoyed a long and happy married life. In two weeks' time they would celebrate their diamond wedding. They rarely quarrelled and all their friends agreed they had not known a happier couple.

Henry was ten years older than Flo, but the age gap had never made any difference to their mutual understanding.

The happy couple had had four children who got on very well together; they were grown up now and had families of their own. They united at Flo and Harry's place for Christmas, and everybody looked forward to the family gathering. Old photographs were rediscovered and the house echoed with laughter.

The old couple had had their troubles, but these seemed to draw them even closer together. When Flo's only brother died the sympathy of the rest of the family helped Flo in her grief.

On the morning of their diamond wedding the local newspaper sent a reporter and a cameraman. Pictures were taken of the happy couple and the reporter asked a few questions so that he could write a short article for the evening edition.

'How do you account for such a happy married life?' he asked. Although Flo did most of the talking on other occasions she always let Harry answer for them at times like these.

'Well,' said Harry, 'when we were married we came to an arrangement. It was agreed that Flo would decide all the little problems and I would decide all the big ones.'

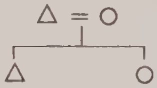
'And this scheme has worked well, then?' said the reporter.

'It certainly has,' replied Harry. 'There haven't been any big problems!'

1. Do you think an age gap between a married couple is a problem? Suggest two reasons why husbands are usually older than their wives.
2. Give reasons why a marriage with children is less likely to end in the divorce court than a childless marriage. (Or take the opposite view, if you like.)
3. What are the biggest problems to be faced by a couple starting married life together?
4. Describe three possible kinds of trouble (apart from the one mentioned in the case study) which might bring a married couple closer together.

### FOLLOW-UP

1. Which member of a marriage partnership do you think is more likely to be affected by each of the points below? Rearrange the list under the headings *Wife* and *Husband*.
   (a) expected to be faithful
   (b) nurse you when ill
   (c) dislike being tied down
   (d) financial worries
   (e) home of one's own
   (f) independence from in-laws
   (g) making important decisions
   (h) baby-sitters
   (i) choosing holidays
   (j) decoration of the house
2. Give one reason why
   (a) a woman changes her surname on marriage
   (b) a husband's career is often considered more important than his wife's
   (c) marriage should be 'until death us do part'
   (d) trial marriages are dangerous
   (e) only a small proportion of unhappily married couples consult a Marriage Guidance Counsellor
3. List points for and against setting up home in one of the following:
   (a) a bedsitter
   (b) a caravan
   (c) a flat
   (d) a hostel
4. Suggest one advantage and one disadvantage of living in a kibbutz for
   (a) a small child
   (b) a youth
   (c) a parent
   (d) an old person
5. Show diagrammatically the positions of the people in your family.
   △ for a male
   ○ for a female
   = for a marriage
   e.g.



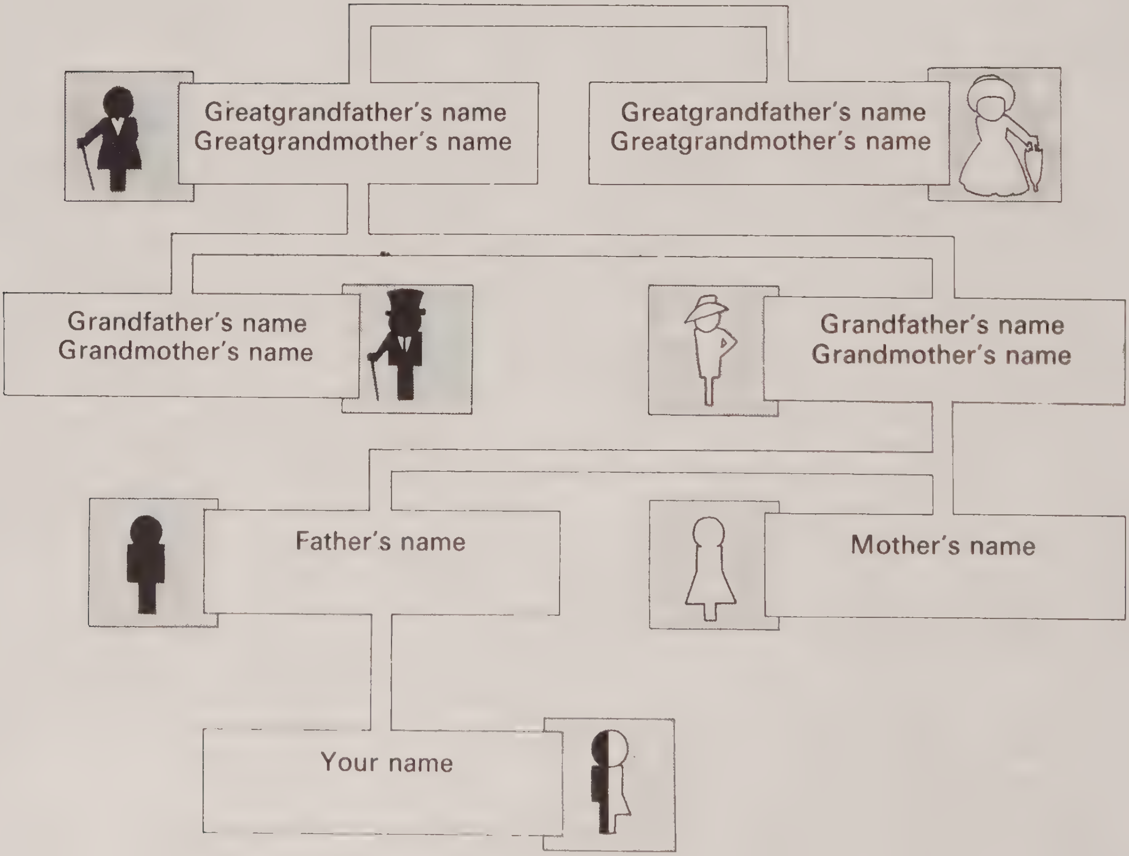
### ACTIVITIES

1. Draw a cartoon strip on the subject of marriage. Here are some ideas:
   (a) courtship
   (b) engagement
   (c) best man
   (d) wedding dress
   (e) the ring
   (f) wedding ceremony
   (g) confetti
   (h) reception
   (i) wedding cake
2. Use magazine cuttings to make a collage illustrating *family problems*.
3. With photographs
   (a) make a scrapbook entitled *My Family*
   (b) illustrate your *life-cycle* so far
4. Copy the family tree on page 48, and insert names.
5. Tape-record a conversation from a prepared script between a legal polygamist (e.g. a man from the Masai tribe in Africa) and an illegal bigamist (i.e. a man or woman in Britain who unlawfully has two married partners at the same time). How could both try to justify their actions?

### CSE QUESTIONS

1. 'Marriage is outdated.' Discuss the arguments for and against for the individual and society. (East Anglian Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)

2. The family exists in some form in all human societies because it performs essential functions. Write one paragraph on each of these.
   (East Anglian Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
3. Describe the advantages and disadvantages of belonging to a nuclear family.
   (East Anglian Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
4. (a) What are the advantages of family life?
   (b) What developments are challenging family life as normally practised in this country?
   (Metropolitan Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
5. 'Parents today have no control over their children.'
   (a) Do you agree with this statement?
   (b) What sort of control should parents have over teenagers?
   (c) How should this control be exercised?
   (Metropolitan Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)


Greatgrandfather's name
Greatgrandmother's name
Greatgrandfather's name
Greatgrandmother's name
Grandfather's name
Grandmother's name
Grandfather's name
Grandmother's name
Father's name
Mother's name
Your name

Family Tree

# II LIVING IN THE COMMUNITY

## Unit 4 *URBAN LIFE*

### TOPIC 4.1. INDUSTRIALISATION

Each person first sees life through the eyes of his individual self. Later he realises he is part of a group such as the family. In pre-industrial communities the basic unit of organisation was a small group of people who settled down into a rural community. Years ago it was not unusual for all the people in a village to be related or of the same kin.

In the last two centuries **urban communities** of town and city dwellers have far outnumbered those living in rural areas. The basis of the change in living habits lay in the change in the **economic system** or the way people work to produce things so that households can be supplied with goods and services.

The **industrial environment** of large towns has brought people both pain and pleasure. The pain has found expression in slums, large-scale unemployment, class warfare, traffic congestion, smoke and pollution. The pleasures are found in improved amenities, educational institutions, shopping centres, entertainment and cultural opportunities. The villager may believe that life in a big city is a rat race, but most townspeople would not change even the stress of the 'rush hour' for what they regard as life in a rural backwater.

People's regard for urban life depends a lot on their position in the class structure, i.e. their particular social class. There is often an enormous gap between rich and poor which remains in spite of the modern welfare state with all its advantages such as unemployment, sickness, death and disablement benefits, family, guardian and maternity allowances, and state pensions for the retired and the widowed.

For centuries the ownership of land was the main source of wealth, and this was especially so when people lived in rural surroundings and relied on farming to provide a living.

Landowners were the wealthy class. Even steeply progressive modern taxes, which have heavily penalised the rich, have not done much to alter the pattern of wealth distribution. In 1972 28 per cent of all personal wealth was owned by the top 1 per cent of the adult population, and 54 per cent by the top 5 per cent. These estimates were given in July 1975 by the Royal Commission on the distribution of income and wealth, chaired by Lord Diamond, and they indicate that in 1972 95 per cent of the people owned less than half the country's wealth.

A few of those in the lower socio-economic classes are able to climb up the social ladder. (This is what sociologists mean by **upward social mobility**.) But the social ladder has not yet been replaced by the social highway along which all classes may pass in equal proportions and without bottlenecks and hold-ups. A very large number of people who are born in the dilapidated and derelict parts of towns known as **twilight zones** are deprived – they have poor health, poor education and poor jobs. Professor Peter Townsend has suggested that about 8 million people in Britain grow up in **poverty**.

### TOPIC 4.2 URBAN HOUSING

Although there are examples of bad rural housing, some of the worst housing conditions are found in large towns and cities. Our slums go back to the early nineteenth century, when the main industrial towns increased rapidly in size leaving a trail of houses built in tight rows, many of them back-to-back, with no gardens and little sanitation. Things are often not much better today in large urban spread where towns join together to form **conurbations.**

Although 8 million dwellings have been built since World War II, millions of people are still badly housed. According to a survey made in 1971, there are about $1\frac{1}{4}$ million dwellings completely unfit to house human beings and nearly 2 million homes lacking basic amenities such as flush toilets, bathrooms or running water. There are voluntary organisations, like Shelter, which act as **pressure groups** to draw attention to the plight of

MOVED TO
BET LYNCH'S
HOUSE
MOVED
FROM
HERE

Houses used to be built in tight rows. Is it happening anywhere today?

the inadequately housed; they exert pressure on the government to do something about it.

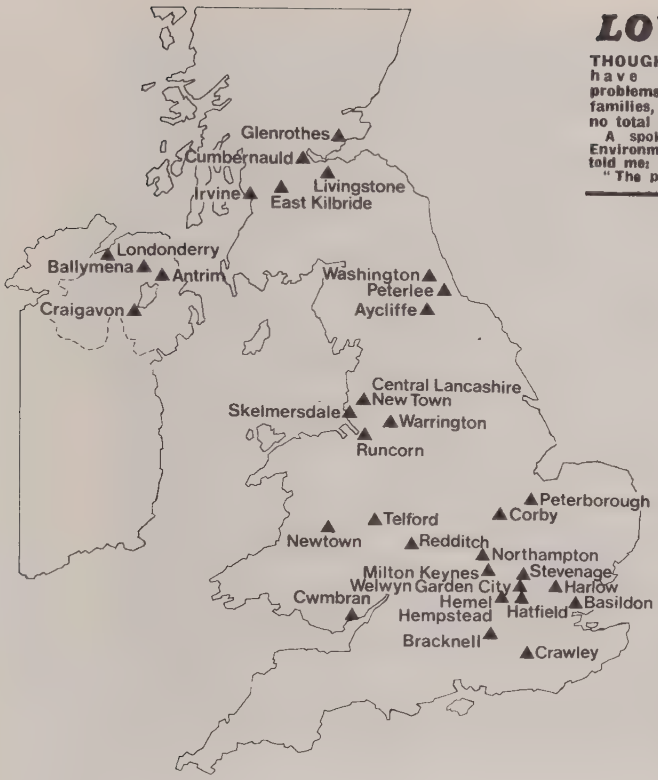
**Slums** are dwellings unfit for human habitation. What can the community do about the slums?

1. Pull down dilapidated houses and build new dwellings on the same site. This is known as **slum clearance.**
2. Modernise the existing property to bring it up to a satisfactory standard. We call this **urban renewal**.
3. Move the people
   (a) to *new towns* such as Basildon and Milton Keynes;
   (b) to *overspill towns* such as Thetford or Sudbury; these are fairly small towns which would possibly benefit from an influx of new life;
   (c) to *expanding towns* such as Ipswich or Peterborough, which are old towns with an increasing population; both are in one of the country's growth areas (East Anglia).

Life in the poorer parts of towns spoils people's health – physically, mentally and emotionally. They suffer from **deprivation.** They go without playing fields, recreation grounds – they have insufficient room to breathe. Schools in large towns are more likely to be short-staffed and housed in old buildings with overcrowded classes.

There are many towns in the world with living conditions far worse than any experienced in British conurbations. In Calcutta and Hong Kong people live in conditions similar to the worst days of our industrial revolution.

Yet we have to be careful about trying to move people in large numbers. There are thousands of people who would not change their Coronation Street for the Crossroads Motel. Those with fond associations of a crowded working-class area may not wish to leave lifelong friends. Town planning authorities may try to persuade them to move to the so-called clean air of a tenth-storey flat. Would you like to live at the top of a block of *high-rise flats*? What are the snags? A recent survey showed that about 75 per cent of young children living in high-rise flats do not have children in their own peer


Glenrothes
Cumbernauld
Livingstone
Irvine
East Kilbride
Londonderry
Ballymena
Antrim
Craigavon
Washington
Peterlee
Aycliffe
Central Lancashire
New Town
Skelmersdale
Warrington
Runcorn
Peterborough
Corby
Telford
Newtown
Redditch
Northampton
Milton Keynes
Stevenage
Welwyn Garden City
Harlow
Cwmbran
Hemel
Hempstead
Hatfield
Basildon
Bracknell
Crawley

New towns

## LOWDOWN ON SKY BLOCKS

THOUGH high blocks have caused severe problems for young families, there is still no total ban on them.

A spokesman for the Environment Minister told me:

"The problems of high blocks are so well-known by now that there is no need to issue a formal directive to councils asking them to stop building them.

"High building is almost non-existent today. Since 1973 fewer than three per cent of all flats built were in blocks of more than five storeys.

"If local authorities want to build estates with a very high density, they must justify their decision to the Department of the Environment."

## But tougher rules are still needed to protect Britain's high-rise dwellers

## Are you living in a concrete cage?

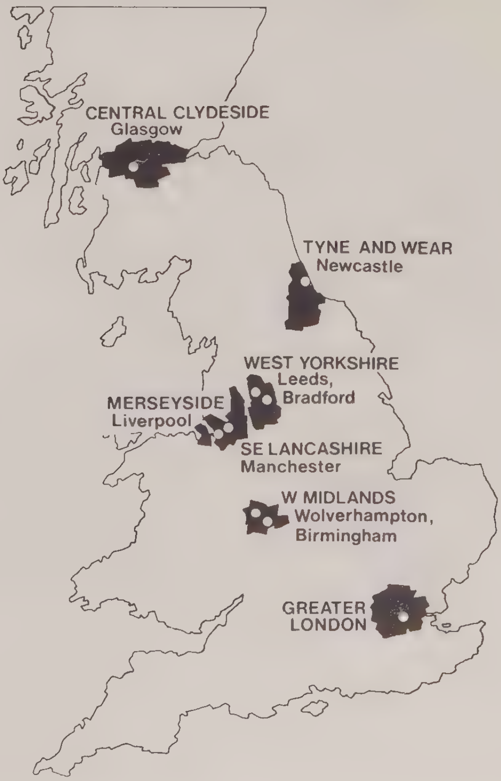
group (of their own age – see Unit 2) to play with.

This account of urban housing has shown that the problems are long-standing and that there is much yet to be done. Many of the worst areas are being tackled, but pockets of bad urban housing are likely to remain with us for a long time.

### TOPIC 4.3 THE CONURBATIONS

Although some of the worst housing and living conditions are found in the conurbations, some of the best facilities, amenities and services are also found in these places. The word 'conurbation' was suggested over fifty years ago by the sociologist and town planner Patrick Geddes. The 1951 Census defined a conurbation as 'a continuously built-up area with no intervening rural land'.

About 18 million of our 56 million people live in the conurbations, so they are pretty crowded places. Some geographers have used the word **megalopolises** to describe them, and the rectangular area


CENTRAL CLYDESIDE
Glasgow
TYNE AND WEAR
Newcastle
WEST YORKSHIRE
Leeds,
Bradford
MERSEYSIDE
Liverpool
SE LANCASHIRE
Manchester
W MIDLANDS
Wolverhampton,
Birmingham
GREATER
LONDON

Britain's seven conurbations

Part of the Birmingham conurbation

joining Merseyside and Thames-side has been referred to as 'the coffin'. It is wrong to think of the seven conurbations as 'much of a muchness'. London, for instance, is very different from the rest because it grew outwards from the centre. Small market towns such as Croydon and Ilford were absorbed by Greater London, but other conurbations resulted from the joining of many towns.

The life-cycles of the conurbations differ, as do the environments and attitudes of people who live in them. For example there is a distinctiveness about Birmingham. The Frenchman de Tocqueville noticed in 1835 that there was 'hardly any likeness' between Birmingham and London. He described the people of Birmingham as never having a minute to themselves. 'They work as if they must get rich the next evening and die the next day.'

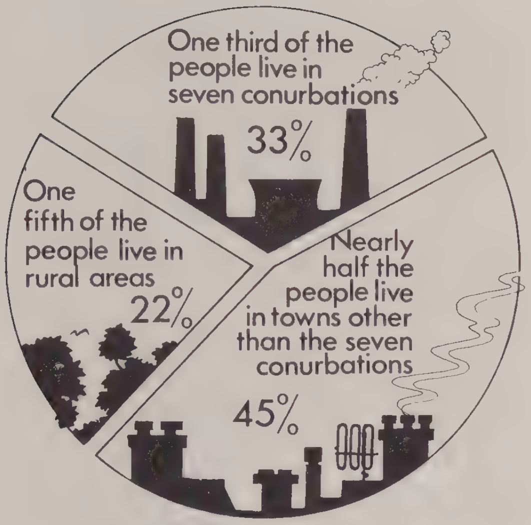
Londoners tend to commute from **suburbs** which are high-density residential areas miles away from the city centre. What are the problems of suburbia? Contrast driving through Birmingham, via the M6 and Spaghetti Junction, with travelling along the underground railway tentacles of London's tube system, and you begin to appreciate the different atmosphere of urban life in two of the largest conurbations.

### TOPIC 4.4 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

London, as the capital and largest town, has long had a different form of local government from the rest of the country. The Greater London Council (GLC) dates from an Act of 1962 which established the first type of conurbation government.

Since 1974 the pattern of local government has been reorganised. In England there are 6 new **metropolitan counties** corresponding to the 5 English conurbations outside London, plus south Yorkshire. The metropolitan counties are divided into **metropolitan districts**. The Greater London area remains under the councils of 32 London boroughs and the City of London, and the GLC. One of the greatest changes is that about a third of the people come under the jurisdiction of a 'conurbation government'.

Towns other than conurbations have lost the right to govern themselves and have been swallowed by the 52 larger new county authorities within which there are 375 district authorities. These 52 new counties are sometimes called non-metropolitan counties because they are separate from



any metropolitan area or conurbation. Many of the old towns such as Bristol and Norwich have lost much of the power they had when they were county boroughs, such as control of education and highways. The major services today, in towns other than conurbations, are provided by **county councils,** while **district councils** look after housing, public health, refuse collection, etc. In the conurbations or metropolitan counties responsibility for some of the major services is given to district authorities.

In the local government reorganisation which took place in 1974, heralded by an Act of 1972, the towns, other than conurbations, generally lost out. The conurbations maintained the right to run their own services, but other towns are now governed by their county authorities. The county and district councils usually have their main offices in towns, so people who work in council offices are likely to be townsfolk.

Local government services are financed mainly from *rates* and a central government grant. Councils also receive money from rents and amenities such as swimming pools, playing fields, markets, car parks and entertainment. The central government uses about 10 per cent of its taxation revenue to help local councils. Householders have been burdened with greatly increased rates in recent inflationary years, so the central government has used its rate support grant to help councils in the greatest need.

### TOPIC 4.5 URBAN AMENITIES

If you live in a town or city you will have many advantages not enjoyed by country folk. Whether you appreciate them is a different matter; town people are so accustomed to all the benefits that they tend to take them for granted. Let us consider some of the **amenities** of urban life.

No doubt your house is supplied with running

THE MARKET
coffee house
HOLLY'S
W A GITTOES
L

Modern shopping facilities

water and the dustbins are emptied regularly. How far is the nearest street light from your home. If you want to go into the centre of the town you travel along well-surfaced, frequently swept streets, possibly bordered by trees. It is unlikely that you will walk for more than five minutes before finding a bus stop. You will be safeguarded by patrolling police, either on foot or in a panda car. Leaving the residential area you will reach a shopping centre where most everyday requirements can be bought.

It is being realised more and more that towns are for the people and not for the motor car. Modern **pedestrian precincts** allow people to move around the shopping area without worrying about the traffic. Car parks allow people to leave their vehicles and shop at leisure. They are urged to 'park and ride' to the shops by means of public transport. A large shopping precinct will attract many competitive stores.

The offices of the council and local newspaper, cinemas and theatres, hotels and restaurants, the Citizens' Advice Bureau, banks, insurance companies, house agents and building societies are likely to be found near the town centre. So are the main libraries, art galleries and museums. All these places provide both services and employment. There are many opportunities for jobs in a town, e.g. at hospitals and airports and on industrial estates. Parks and golf courses allow town people to spend their leisure in the open air.

Most towns have problems of noise, congestion and pollution, but they are very convenient places in which to live, and work.

## TOPIC 4.6 URBAN PROBLEMS

Town planners have to grapple with the problems of urban living:

1. **Traffic congestion** means traffic jams, wasted time and frayed tempers.
2. **Town boundaries** are usually limited by historical considerations. Most modern towns have tightly drawn boundaries at the counties and rural areas naturally resist urban encroachment. Yet there are often thousands of people who benefit from the nearest town. They may work there, or use its services and entertainments – but officially they live outside its boundaries and contribute little or nothing to the services they use.
3. **Suburbia** is often thought of as an insulting term. Life in the suburbs may mean few shops or amenities and the lack of a social nucleus. It is difficult to foster a sense of community when so many people are away from the area all day.
4. **Pollution.** Prophets of doom say that man may not be able to see the sun in the twenty-first century and that ultimately on earth life will be impossible. The prophets will be right if we continue to live selfishly, just for today. We must think of future generations and conserve our resources.

   Those who live in urban areas are worst affected. Towns were often sited in a certain place because of the need for water, good communications and industry. These are pollution hazards.

   (a) **Water pollution** has increased with industrialisation and overcrowded towns. We have purification and filtration plants where water is treated chemically; but it is difficult to cope with industrial effluents from our factories – ammonia, benzene, detergents, lead and sulphuric acid. If you were to fall into certain rivers or canals there would be a rush to hospital to save your life.

   (b) **Air pollution** such as smoke and fumes from transport and industry pollute our air. Cars pollute urban motorways with carbon monoxide exhaust fumes.

   (c) **Industrial pollution** is caused by our aim to produce goods at a low cost. It is cheaper to dump potassium cyanide, used in steel production, than to recycle it for future use. Japan and the United States have strict laws for noxious exhaust fumes. Non-returnable bottles are dumped in their millions because it is cheaper than collecting them for sterilisation. Some firms wrap goods in plastic which it is difficult to burn or destroy. We are building up trouble for the future in this way. Have we a duty to future generations? It may be easier for industrial organisations to leave slag-heaps, buildings, canals, and railways and construct new ones, rather than clean up the **dereliction** of the past. But dereliction presents dangers. Children may wander into dangerous buildings or fall into canals. Can you think of any dangerous buildings or places?

   (d) **Noise pollution**

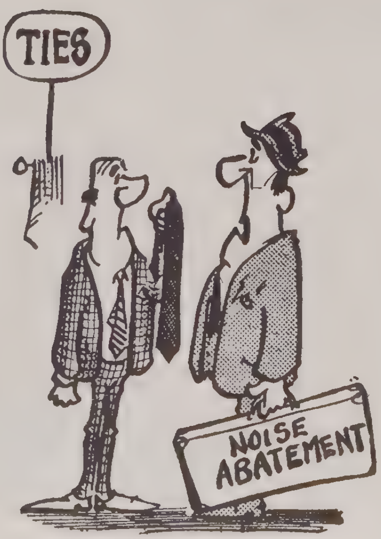
   'The saddest thing of all is the growing tendency of youth to expose itself to noise which would not be allowed in industry.

Stewartby Brickworks spoil heaps

> Children as young as eleven are being subjected to noise so damaging that they run the risk of deafness long before they reach middle age.’ (John Connell, Chairman of the Noise Abatement Society)

What examples of noise pollution can you add to those given below?

- factory machinery
- aircraft
- road vehicles
- transistors
- television
- spin dryers
- underground trains
- pneumatic drills
- discotheques
- washing machines



‘Too loud.’

The answer to pollution lies in **conservation**. Water must be kept clean and must not be wasted. Chemical fertilisers, sewage and factory waste should not be discharged into water supplies. Each one of us must be vigilant. Even if we cannot do much on a large scale, at least we can pick up our empty Coke cans and crisp packets.

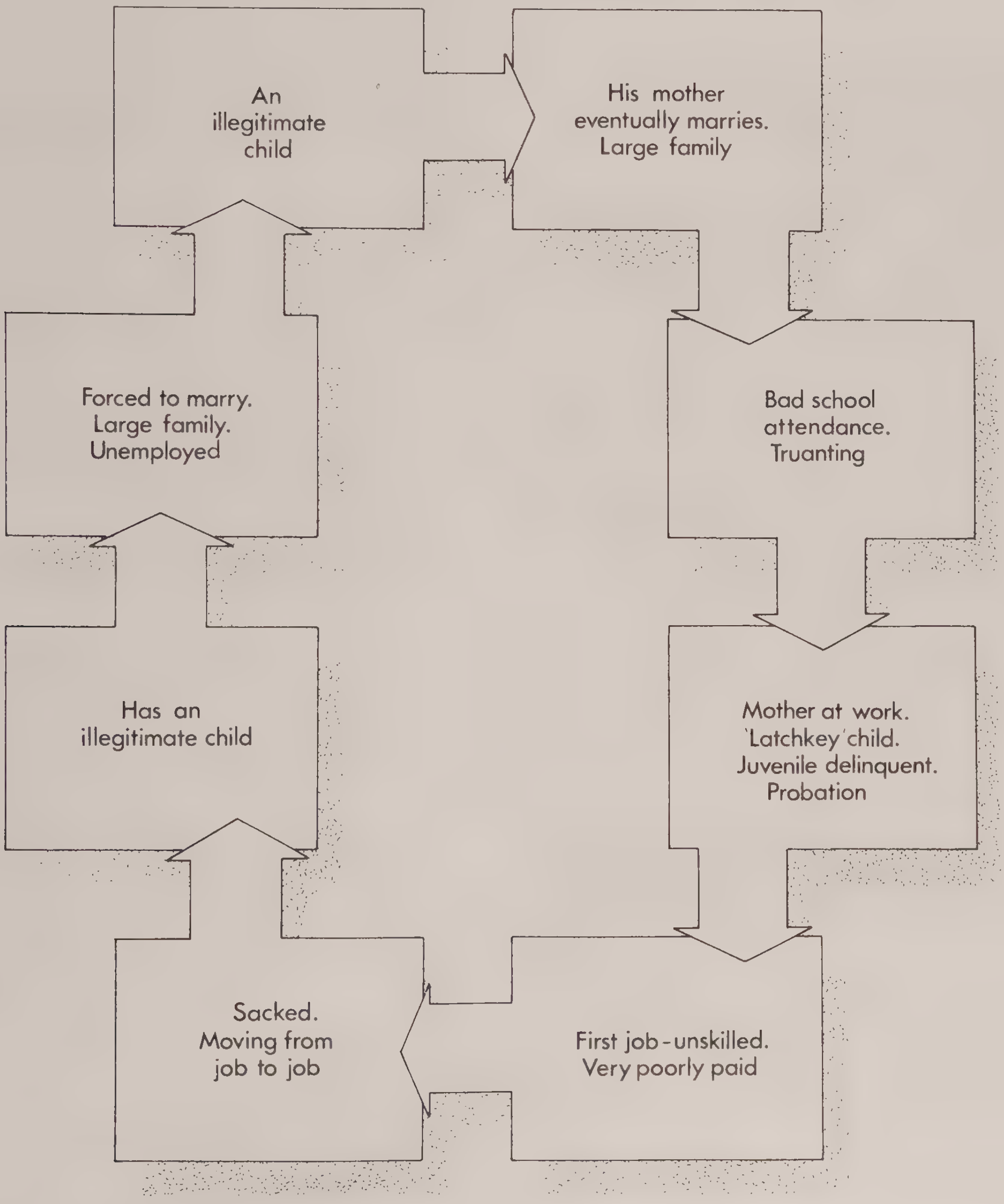
Land can be reinstated

In 1971 the Friends of the Earth, a pressure group of conservationists, left these non-returnable bottles at Schweppes's head office, Marble Arch

EXPLAIN WHAT IS MEANT BY:

urban communities
industrial environment
upward social mobility
twilight zones
poverty
conurbations
pressure groups
metropolitan districts
county councils
district councils
amenities
pedestrian precincts
traffic congestion
town boundaries
slums
slum clearance
urban renewal
deprivation
megalopolises
suburbs
metropolitan counties
suburbia
water pollution
air pollution
industrial pollution
dereliction
noise pollution
conservation

CASE STUDY: NO CHANCE OF ESCAPING FROM THE URBAN POVERTY TRAP


An illegitimate child
His mother eventually marries. Large family
Bad school attendance. Truanting
Mother at work. 'Latchkey' child. Juvenile delinquent. Probation
First job - unskilled. Very poorly paid
Sacked. Moving from job to job
Has an illegitimate child
Forced to marry. Large family. Unemployed

What special extra help do you think could be given to the following?

- (a) Very large families caught in the 'poverty trap'
- (b) Latchkey children (see topic 9.7) who have already committed petty crimes
- (c) Men who have been unemployed for a long time, and who have families to keep
- (d) Illegitimate children who feel an unjustifiable sense of shame

### FOLLOW-UP

1. What is meant by the following?
   - (a) ribbon development
   - (b) a community spirit
   - (c) squatting
   - (d) rent rebates
2. Here are some possible reasons for people being evicted from rented property. Choose one and write an imaginary case study.
   - (a) keeping pets
   - (b) arrears of rent
   - (c) having children
3. Pollution is often caused because things are deliberately made not to last ('planned obsolescence'). Give examples of ten such things and suggest remedies.
4. Conservation involves attacking those things that are polluting the earth. Suggest some action which could be taken against
   - (a) exhaust fumes
   - (b) noisy aircraft
   - (c) plastic bottles
5. Write an essay entitled 'Living in the Year 2001'.

### ACTIVITIES

1. Carry out some research at your local reference library to find out how your town has grown since the 1801 Census. Illustrate this growth by rough maps of the area in 1801 and today.
2. Prepare plans for a group of sheltered homes for old people.
3 Compile a questionnaire and use it in a nearby street which includes a variety of houses. Start with these questions and add six of your own.
   - (a) age?
   - (b) detached, semi-detached or terrace?
   - (c) owned or rented?
   - (d) central heating?
4. Visit your local town or city hall and find out about future
   - (a) slum clearance schemes
   - (b) council house programmes
   - (c) traffic plans
   - (d) car park arrangements
5. Take a good look at your town centre and check the number of
   - (a) department stores
   - (b) cinemas
   - (c) multi-storey car parks
   - (d) large office blocks

   Write 'I' against those increasing in number and 'D' against those that are decreasing.

### CSE QUESTIONS

1. (a) Write about what it is like to live in a town.
   - (b) What is a town or city?
   - (c) What are the essential features of a town or city?
   - (d) How did towns originate?
   - (e) What are the advantages and disadvantages of living in a town?

   (Middlesex Regional Examining Board for CSE, Social Studies)
2. (a) Explain the term *urbanisation*.
   - (b) During which century did the greatest amount of urbanisation occur in Great Britain?
   - (c) Why did Great Britain become urbanised and what made the process of urbanisation possible?

   (East Anglian Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
3. What sort of problems arise as more and more people crowd into larger cities?
   (East Midland Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
4. In April 1974 local authority areas became reorganised into 52 county authorities, 375 district authorities and 6 metropolitan counties.
   - (a) What services are provided by the county authorities?
   - (b) What services are provided by the district authorities?
   - (c) What are metropolitan counties?

   (East Midland Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)

5. Write about pollution of the environment under the following headings:
   (a) noise
   (b) air pollution
   (c) pollution of rivers and the sea
   (d) refuse disposal

(Metropolitan Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)

# Unit 5 *POPULATION OF BRITAIN*

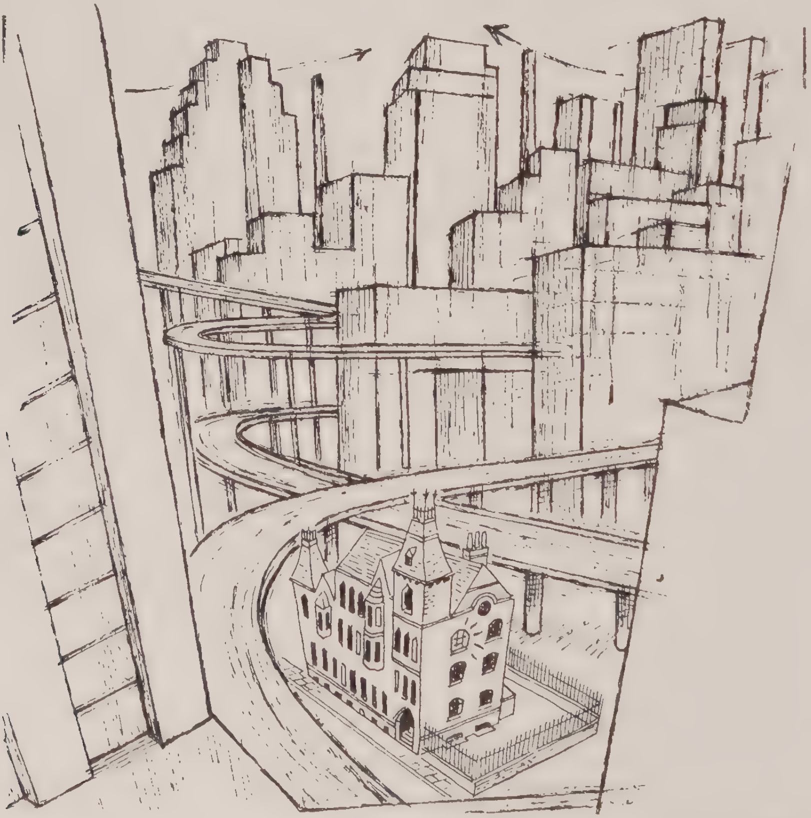
## TOPIC 5 POPULATION GROWTH

Since the recording of population statistics began, there has been a steady increase in the population of the United Kingdom; the birth rate has nearly always exceeded the death rate. However, since 1973 birth rate and death rate statistics have been running very close together; as net migration is negligible, we may be in for a period of **zero population growth.** This means that the number of births is roughly the same as the number of deaths.

The main reason for the steady growth in population has been increased **life expectancy.** Men can expect to live on average until they are about 69 while women are likely to make 75. At least six revolutionary movements in the last 200 years have helped to prolong human life.

These revolutions were not separate events which took place over a certain length of time. They contributed to one another and are still going on.

**Demography** is an important feature of Social Studies. This is the study by statistical methods of population growth, birth rates, death rates, fertility and mortality. There has been a marked decrease in **infant mortality,** i.e. the number of children



Fred Sumner

'Now 3B, let us all imagine we're in the middle of a great big jungle.'

REVOLUTIONS THAT HAVE IMPROVED LIFE EXPECTANCY

| *Revolution* | *Improvements* |
|---|---|
| Agricultural | More food and greater variety |
| Industrial | Cotton and synthetic clothes, chemicals, soap, power, etc. |
| Medical | Curative and preventive medicine (inoculation, vaccination, anaesthetics, penicillin, antibiotics, etc.) |
| Scientific | Applied science gives a pleasant and easier life |
| Transport | Railways, motor cars, aircraft and hovercraft speedily move goods and people |
| Trade | Exporting and importing make for higher living standards |

per 1,000 born alive but who die before reaching the age of one. A century ago the British infant mortality rate was about 150 per 1,000 and it did not really begin to improve much until the twentieth century.

Today it is about 15 per 1,000, which is negligible compared with India's 120 per 1,000. Only a few countries have a better record than Britain, e.g. Sweden with 12 infant deaths per 1,000. Improved infant mortality rates signify economic and social progress. There are more deaths of young children among the working classes because they are less fortunate than the middle classes in the following ways:

(a) income
(b) standards of hygiene
(c) midwifery and hospital services
(d) housing
(e) general living conditions.

Recalling our basic concepts of heredity and environment, note the marked differences in infant mortality for different races in the Republic of South Africa:

| | |
|---|---|
| Asians | 65 |
| Blacks and Coloureds | 107 |
| Whites | 28 |

Rates of infant mortality are closely linked with environment. Countries that have experienced a steady rate of economic growth for a number of years usually enjoy a high standard of living and good social conditions. There is a far greater chance of babies living beyond the age of one in developed countries such as the United States, the Soviet Union and most West European countries, than in South East Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean. An increase in population is usually brought about if

1. the birth rate exceeds the death rate; or
2. the number of people entering a country is greater than the number leaving.

In the late seventies Britain's birth rate is not much greater than the death rate, and there is a *net outflow* of migrants, i.e. more are leaving than arriving.

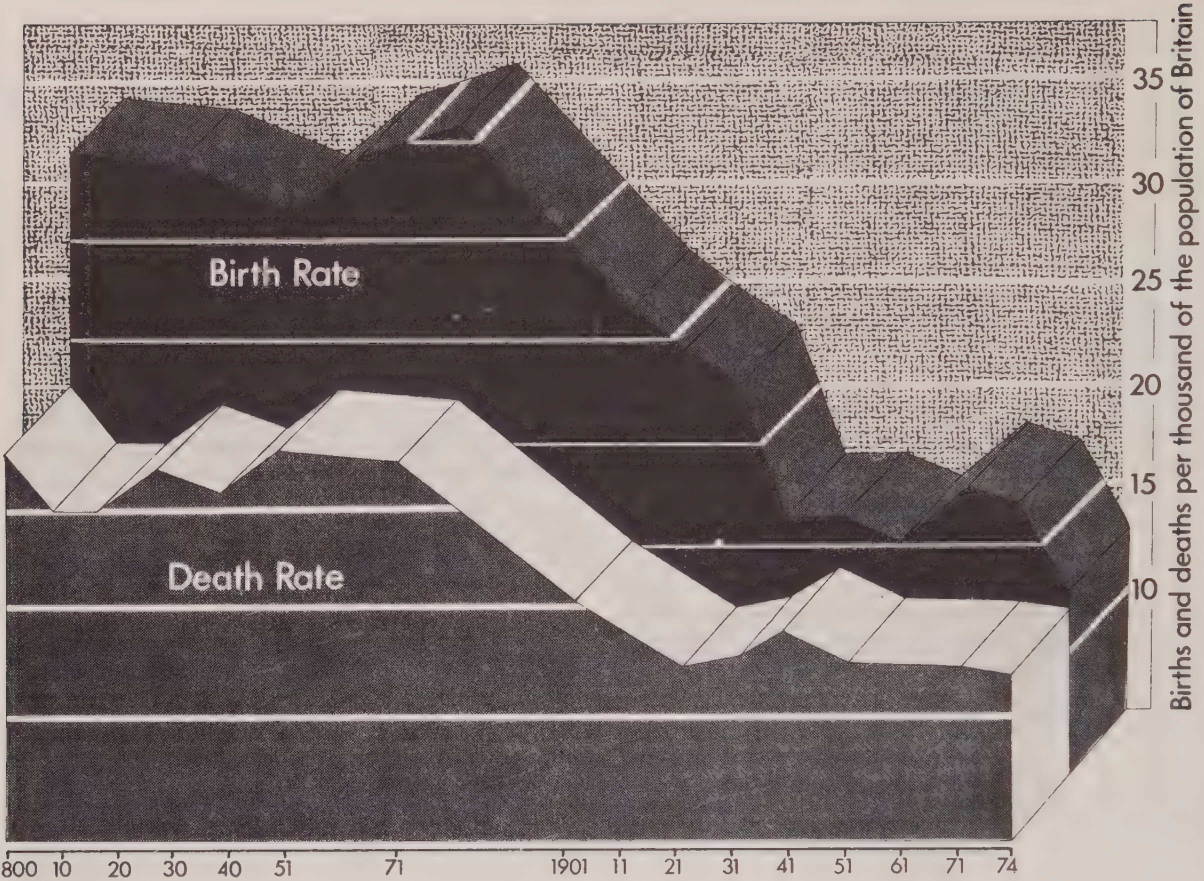
## TOPIC 5.2 THE BIRTH RATE

Most babies in Britain are born in hospital and are looked after extremely well

The **crude birth rate** is the annual number of live births per 1,000 people. It is 'crude' because it does not give an accurate statistic of **fertility**, which is best measured in relation to women of child-bearing age, not to the population as a whole.

The present birth rate in Britain is the lowest since births were first registered. About a century ago the birth rate was over 34 per 1,000 but in 1976 it had fallen to 11.9 per 1,000.

The diagram shows that the birth rate decreased steadily from 1880 until 1940 when it was not much different from the present rate. It was so low at this time that a Royal Commission on population investigated the position from 1945 to 1949 and



Births and deaths in Britain

recommended steps to prevent the total population from declining. Some of the measures adopted included:

1. Payment of family allowances, starting in 1945 at 5 shillings (25p) for the second child and 8 shillings (40p) for subsequent children. (Child benefit allowances were increased to £3 a week in November 1978, and to £4 a week in April 1979.)
2. Increased tax allowances for children.
3. Improved services for mothers such as home helps and nurseries.

Family allowances were granted to the first child from April 1976.

After World War II the birth rate rose. Husbands and wives, who had been unable to establish permanent homes because of forced separation, now settled down to rear families. A bulge was produced in the birth rate curve; a smaller bulge took place when those born in the immediate post-war period had families of their own. The birth rate, which had dropped again to 16 per 1,000 in 1951, increased to 18 between 1960 and 1965.

POSSIBLE REASONS FOR A FALL IN THE BIRTH RATE

1. Improved methods of contraception
2. Advice from family planning centres
3. Emancipation of women
4. Effect of propaganda and organisations such as Population Countdown
5. More women out at work
6. Television
7. A drop in fertility (and virility?)
8. Legal abortion
9. Gloomy economic prospects
10. Easier divorce

Will the birth rate continue to decline throughout the last quarter of the twentieth century?

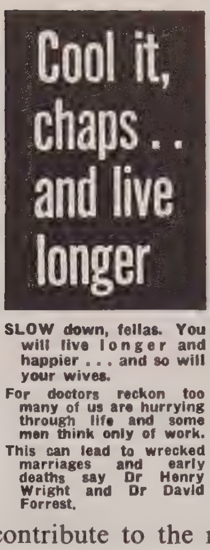
Changes in the birth rate influence **family sizes.** When the birth rate declines there is likely to be a decrease in the average size of families. Family sizes will depend also on how long people live and especially on infant mortality.

### TOPIC 5.3 THE DEATH RATE

The **crude death rate** is the annual number of deaths per 1,000 of the population. Although the death rate has been lower than the birth rate for well over a century at least, the change in the death rate has not been so marked as the change in the birth rate. In 1901 the death rate was 16 per 1,000 while today it is about 12. The death rate is higher for males than for females.

There are two reasons in particular why the death rate has been almost static for so many years:

1. many of the main killer diseases remain active: heart disease, cancer, pneumonia, bronchitis.
2. although some diseases have been considerably reduced, e.g. tuberculosis, compensatory causes of death such as motor accidents contribute to the maintenance of the death rate at a constant level.



**Cool it, chaps . . and live longer**

**SLOW down, fellas.** You will live longer and happier . . . and so will your wives.

For doctors reckon too many of us are hurrying through life and some men think only of work.

This can lead to wrecked marriages and early deaths say Dr Henry Wright and Dr David Forrest.

If the death rate were to remain at 12 per 1,000 and the birth rate were to drop below this figure, Britain would be faced with the prospect of a declining population.

There have been four stages in the life-cycle of population growth in Britain and they have been linked with changes in the birth rate and the death rate:

| *Stage* | *Period* | *Birth rate* | *Death rate* |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Until about 1760 | High | High |
| 2 | 1760 to 1880 | Stable | Decreasing |
| 3 | 1880 to 1920 | Falling | Falling |
| 4 | 1920 to today | Stable | Stable |

### POSSIBLE ADVANTAGES OF A DECREASING POPULATION

1. More space per head
2. Decreased danger from pollution
3. Less traffic congestion
4. More land for agriculture and environmental planning
5. Fewer people to feed
6. Reduction in imports
7. Spare buildings, e.g. houses and factories
8. Less strain on health services
9. Smaller classes at school
10. Improved quality of life

See if you can list ten disadvantages.

## TOPIC 5.4 THE SEXES

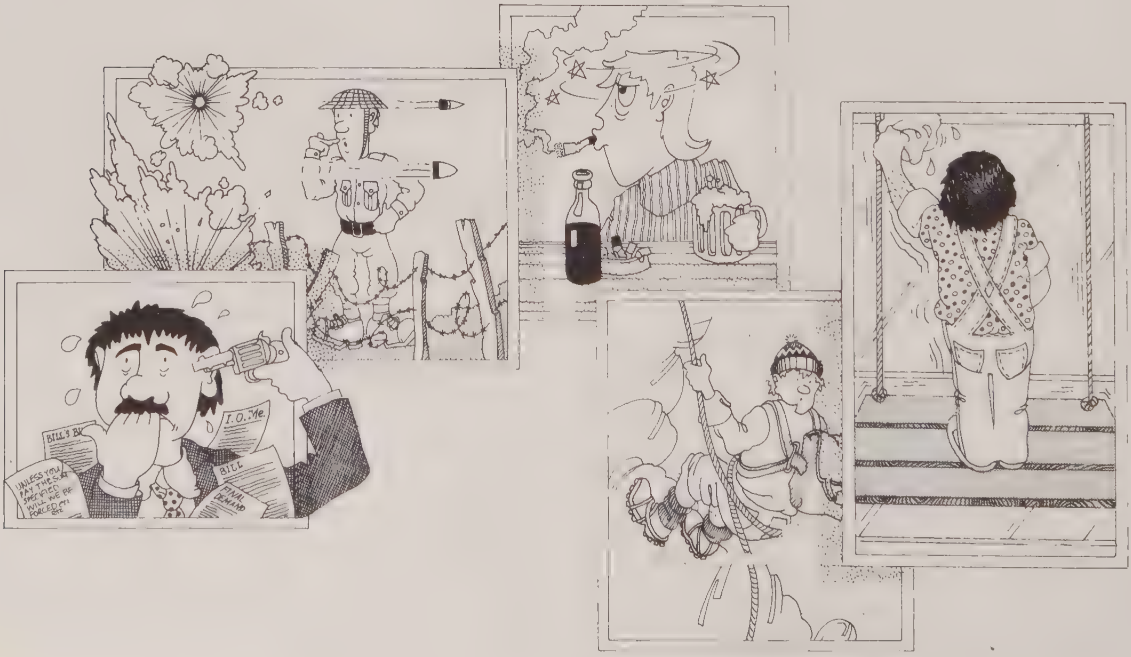
There are statistical differences between the life-cycles of males and females. In Britain 106 boys are born for every 100 girls, but the *mortality rate* for males is higher at all ages, so among the whole population there are only 94 males for every 100 females.

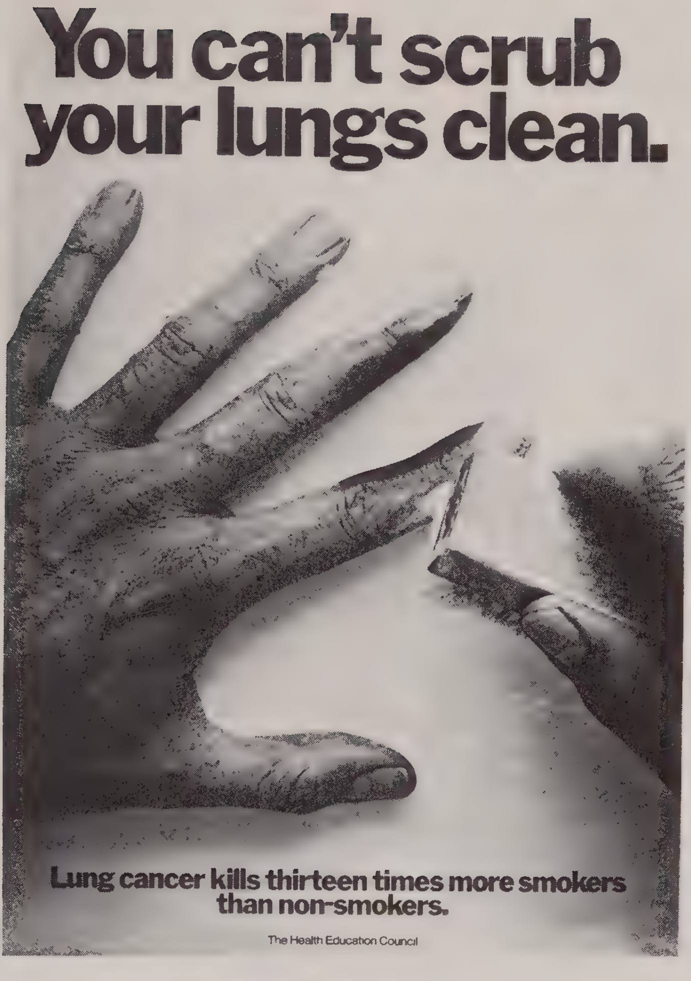
Why do women live longer than men? Some reasons are suggested below, but you ought to challenge them for yourself. Some are included merely to start an argument.

Do you think there is a modern trend towards similarity between **male and female life-cycles**? The proportion of women dying from lung cancer and in road accidents is increasing. Now that both sexes follow more closely the traditional male life-cycle, men and women are likely to suffer from similar accidents and diseases. Male and female life expectancy may come more into line. At present far more men than women die of bronchitis, lung cancer and heart disease.

### SUGGESTED REASONS WHY WOMEN LIVE LONGER THAN MEN

1. Women's physical make-up allows greater longevity
2. Men have more economic and financial pressures
3. Men make too much of 'retirement' and often die soon after
4. Women do not have such dangerous jobs, e.g. mining or deep-sea fishing
5. Men participate more in risky sports
6. It is safer for women in house or office than for men in heavy industry
7. World War II took a greater toll of men
8. Men pursue their pleasures more earnestly and persistently, e.g. sport


BILL'S B
UNLESS YOU PAY THE SUM SPECIFIED WE WILL BE FORCED etc
I.O.Me.
BILL
FINAL DEMAND


You can't scrub your lungs clean.
Lung cancer kills thirteen times more smokers than non-smokers.
The Health Education Council

Far more men than women die of lung cancer

### TOPIC 5.5 YOUNG, OLD AND THOSE IN BETWEEN

It is convenient to divide the population into three **age groups**:

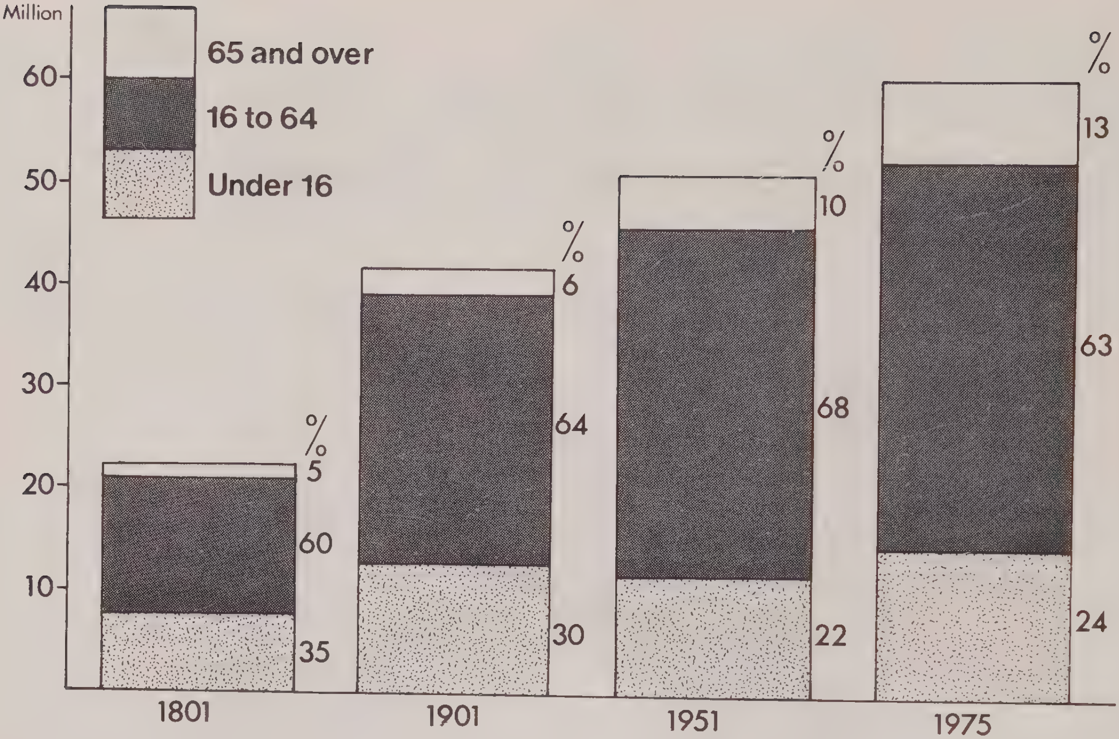
AGE DISTRIBUTION

| *Classification* | *Age* | *Percentage* |
|---|---|---|
| Young (at school) | Under 16 | 24 |
| Available for work | 16 to 64 | 63 |
| Old (retired) | 65 and over | 13 |

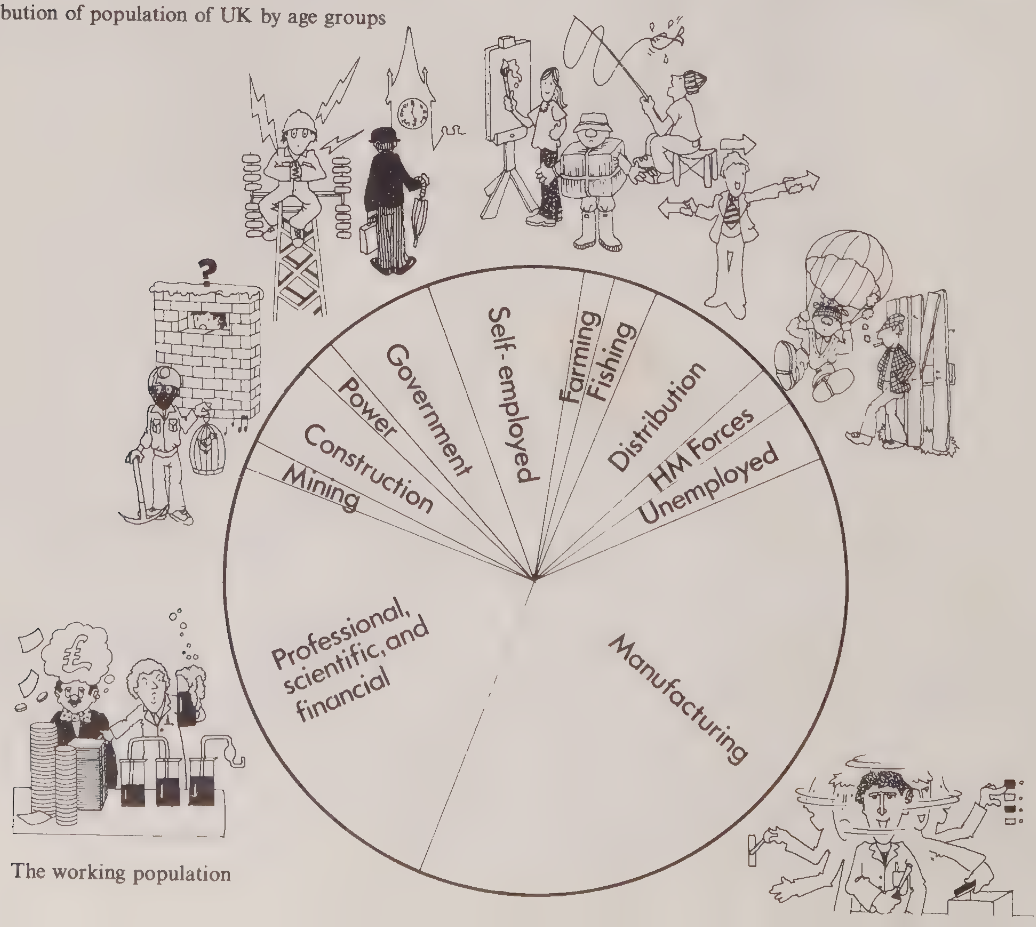
Many classifications used by social scientists are arbitrary. Dividing lines between groups are subjective or largely a matter of opinion; in which of the five social classes would you place *yourself*? (See Unit 2.)

If you are fifteen years old you may not regard yourself as all that 'young', especially compared with children at primary school. Sixty-five-year-olds do not regard themselves as old by modern standards of life expectancy. We tend to think of middle age as being ten years older than we are at the moment!

The majority of those classified as young and old are dependants, and the **dependency ratio** is of great importance in the structure of society. Economists refer to the under-sixteens and those undertaking further full-time education as being not **gainfully employed.** Although some people go on working after the age of sixty-five most of this age group are not gainfully employed.



Distribution of population of UK by age groups



The working population

They have to be kept by the **working population** (i.e. those employed or registered for work). In the United Kingdom the working population makes up 25 of the 56 million people. On average every working person works to keep at least one other. People working full-time do not usually consider this unjust, as they too were dependent while at school and will again be dependent when they retire. The dependency ratio is the combined number of those under sixteen and of retirement age per 1,000 of working age.

As more than half of the population are dependent it is necessary to make the best possible use of those available for work. The table suggests some ways. You should be able to suggest other useful ideas.

KEEPING UP PRODUCTIVITY

1. Keep number unemployed to a minimum
2. Employment service to help workers switching jobs
3. Improved industrial relations to prevent strikes and lockouts
4. Modern equipment and productive methods
5. Capable management which inspires confidence
6. Good working conditions
7. Encouragement of job satisfaction
8. Keep workers healthy and reduce accidents
9. Contented work force – reasonable pay, hours, holidays, amenities, etc.
10. Minimum time travelling to work

Do you think people are too old to work at 65? Find out how old Winston Churchill was when he first became prime minister in 1940 and when he became prime minister again in 1951.

Most advanced industrial countries, such as Britain, have experienced an ageing population. However, according to *Population Projections No. 4, 1974,* the percentage of those over sixty-five will not change significantly over the next thirty-five years. So the problems we have faced with an ageing population appear to be receding.

The following table shows some possible social consequences of an ageing population:

1. Increased state expenditure on retirement pensions
2. More welfare and health services necessary
3. Special homes for the elderly
4. The gainfully employed must work harder to keep a larger proportion of dependants
5. Extension of voluntary services, e.g. meals on wheels, looking after the lonely, etc.

## TOPIC 5.6 MIGRATION: EMIGRANTS AND IMMIGRANTS

**Migration** includes **emigrants** (people leaving the country to live abroad) and **immigrants** (people arriving to live in this country). For centuries we have had more people emigrating than immigrating, although there were two short periods when the flow was in the opposite direction:

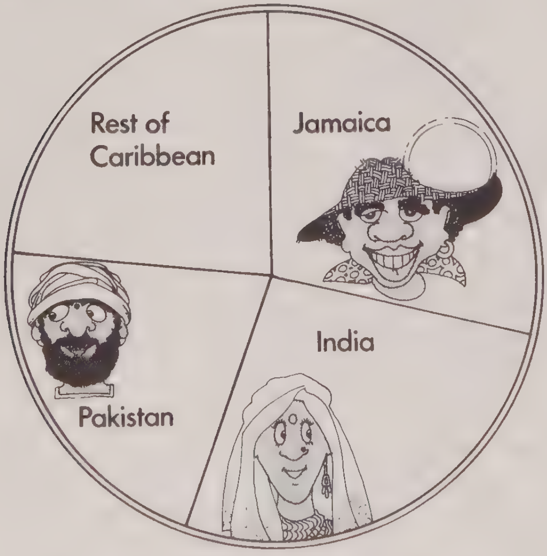
1. The 1930s, following the Great Slump and political persecution in Europe.
2. The 1950s, when a large number of coloured immigrants arrived from new commonwealth countries.

In 1948, the first large batch of 400 West Indians arrived to an official welcome. After that, there was such a large net inward migration of coloured people (402,700 Indians, Pakistanis and West Indians from 1955 to June 1962) that the Commonwealth Immigrants Act was passed in 1962. Before this Act thousands of unskilled coloured workers entered Britain. The 1962 Act introduced a strict system of immigration vouchers, and since then the majority of commonwealth immigrants have been skilled.

The main social problem concerning the migration of peoples in recent years has been that of **race relations** following the admission of about 700,000 coloured immigrants since 1955. Attempts at estimating the future size of the coloured population have caused much controversy. In 1964 the Economist Intelligence Unit estimated that there would be 3·2 million coloured people in Britain by AD 2002. In 1976 there were in Britain nearly 1·8 million people of new Commonwealth and Pakistani ethnic origin.

Who is doing most for the community?

About 90 per cent of the coloured population come from four areas.



Most coloured immigrants come from four areas

Whether there are 2, 3 or 4 million by the end of the century, the important thing is that they must be assimilated and we must learn to live together in peace and harmony. At all costs we must avoid racism.

WAYS OF HELPING COLOURED IMMIGRANTS TO SETTLE

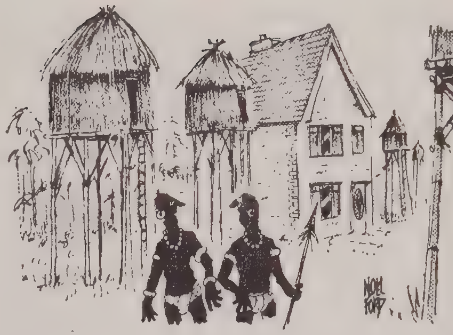
1. Adequate housing
2. Additional teachers in immigrant areas
3. Extra classes in English language
4. Highly trained welfare workers, e.g. health visitors
5. Education of white population to overcome prejudice
6. Legislation to prevent racial discrimination
7. Ensure immigrants have a job to come to
8. Give consideration to minority tastes and interests
9. Encourage community homes and international clubs
10. Government grants to aid areas where there is a large proportion of coloured immigrants

Do you think the effect of environment is more important than heredity? We know that working-class youngsters get to the top in many walks of life, and there is little reason to think that coloured immigrants cannot be successfully absorbed into every part of British life. They are already making an important contribution to the community. The health and transport services would almost break down without them.

The Race Relations Act of 1965 established a Race Relations Board and made it 'unlawful to discriminate on grounds of colour, race, or ethnic or national origin in places of public resort'. The Race Relations Act 1968 was much wider in its scope and made it 'unlawful to discriminate in the provision of goods, facilities and services, in employment, housing and advertising'. It also set up a Community Relations Commission (CRC) to help promote racial harmony.

The Race Relations Act of 1976 replaced the Race Relations Board and the CRC by a new body, the Commission for Racial Equality. Instead of concentrating on individual complaints it tackles wider issues of racial discrimination.

These two have good race relations



'To be perfectly candid, I wouldn't be too happy if they were living next door to me.'

### TOPIC 5.7 POPULATION TRENDS

The most accurate trends are to be found in the **population projections** of the Office of Population and Censuses. Since 1920 long-term estimates of population changes have been used as a basis for government planning.

A projection is not the same as a mere forecast or prediction. It is based upon the *latest* figures of birth rate, death rate, migration, etc. These statistics may well change during the period for which the projection has been made; the projection may sow the seeds of its own undoing, because it may influence events. Individuals, the community and government policies may all be changed by a knowledge of the projections. A projection which showed the trend to be towards a large net inflow of immigrants might bring about an increase in emigration. A projection cannot take account of unforeseen circumstances.

*Population Projection No. 4* prepared by the Office of Population and Censuses covered the period AD 1973–2013. Using 1973 as the base year it projected the population of Britain to the year AD 2011 as about 60 million.

The projection indicated the following trends:

(a) *Expectation of life of babies born in 1973.*

| | *Assuming present conditions (in years)* | *Assuming 2012–13 conditions (in years)* |
|---|---|---|
| Males | 68·7 | 71·2 |
| Females | 75·1 | 77·6 |

Assuming that present trends continue, people will live a little longer. However, there could be new cures for cancer and heart disease that would improve conditions beyond present expectations. There is no real evidence that this is likely, so the population projection shows mortality trends according to what is expected and not according to what one hopes will happen. 'Guesstimates' may possibly turn out to be more accurate than projections, but if we are to be scientific we must accept the evidence as we find it and not as we hope to find it.

(b) *Migration.* Britain has returned to the traditional migration pattern of a net outflow of people. There was a large inflow of coloured immigrants from 1955 to 1962, but this trend has been arrested by the 1962 Act. The total immigrant population rose from about 5 per cent in 1961 to 6·5 per cent in 1971. In 1973 the net annual outflow of people from Britain was about 19,000 and the trends indicated that the number could increase to about 50,000 a year by 1980.

(c) *Fertility.* Today families are smaller than they were a century ago.

NUMBER OF CHILDREN PER FAMILY

| *Year of marriage* | *Number of children* |
|---|---|
| 1861–9 | 6·2 |
| 1871 | 5·9 |
| 1890–9 | 4·1 |
| 1900–9 | 3·3 |
| 1941 | 2·0 |
| 1951 | 2·2 |

The falling birth rate should mean a further reduction in family size, but modern projections must estimate fertility patterns by including *all* women whether married or unmarried. Illegitimate births and births to remarried women have increased as follows:

| *1961* | *1972* |
|---|---|
| 8 per cent | 11·5 per cent |

The trend is for the higher level of divorce and remarriage to continue, but with divorces decreasing from the 1972–3 level when the total was swollen by people taking advantage of the Divorce Reform Act of 1969.

EXPLAIN WHAT IS MEANT BY:

zero population growth
life expectancy
demography
infant mortality
crude birth rate
fertility
family sizes
crude death rate
male and female life-cycles
age groups
dependency ratio
gainfully employed
working population
migrants
emigrants
immigrants
race relations
population projections

CASE STUDY: ONLY HALF DEAD

The Medical Officer of Health was giving his annual report to the Happy Valley Council. He was a conscientious man and his report was delivered in precise terms. The MOH had no time to waste on flowery language. He was a believer in statistical data. In his opinion this gave a clearer indication of public health in Happy Valley than accounts of the work done in antenatal clinics and old people's homes.

'The improvement in the health of the inhabitants of Happy Valley,' he announced, 'is indicated by the fall in the crude death rate from 15·5 per 1,000 last year to 12·5 per 1,000 this year.'

Councillor Bill Huggins looked puzzled. Why couldn't local government officers speak in the language ordinary blokes could understand? He didn't intend to sit there being puzzled by figures. He got to his feet.

'Councillor Huggins,' said the Mayor.

'Mr Chairman,' said Bill, 'would the Medical Officer of Health be good enough to explain what he means by these figures? Could we just know how many people died?'

The Mayor looked sorry for Bill. Surely everybody was capable of interpreting birth-rate and death-rate statistics.

'Well, Councillor Huggins,' he said, 'the MOH means that out of every 1,000 people, 12 died and 5 nearly died.'

1. What did the MOH really mean? Why is it more useful to know the crude death rate than the number who died?
2. What is meant by the following?
   (a) life expectancy
   (b) dependency ratio
   (c) the rate of natural increase
   (d) the rate of population growth
   (e) general fertility rate

3. Find out the main duties of Medical Officers of Health in accordance with the Public Health Act of 1875.
4. Make a rough graph of recent changes in birth rates and death rates in Britain. Indicate the point of zero population growth.

FOLLOW-UP

1. Suggest some tips which would give a young person a better chance of living to a 'good old age'.
2. How would you make a young overseas visitor feel at home in this country?
3. Family planning involves using methods of birth control (contraception). In this connection select two of the ideas below and suggest some problems that might be involved.
   (a) expense
   (b) religious beliefs
   (c) health
   (d) agreement between husband and wife
4. A coloured man and a white woman living in your neighbourhood decide to get married. Describe the possible attitudes of
   (a) neighbours
   (b) friends
   (c) relations
   (d) workmates
   (e) enemies
5. List some things for which the following are unfairly blamed:
   (a) Pakistanis
   (b) Jews
   (c) Chinese
   (d) West Indians

ACTIVITIES

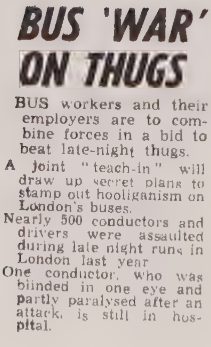
1. Use the *Monthly Digest of Statistics* (Central Statistical Office), or any other relevant publication available at your local reference library, to find the latest statistics for the United Kingdom relating to the number of
   (a) males between 10 and 19 years
   (b) females between 10 and 19 years
   (c) live births
   (d) marriages
   (e) deaths
2. Conduct a survey among members of your group to find the number of children in
   (a) their grandfather's family
   (b) their father's family
   (c) their own family
3. Use one of the annual issues of *Social Trends* to find the number of immigrants to Britain in recent years from
   (a) Africa
   (b) India
   (c) Jamaica
   (d) the rest of the West Indies
   (e) Pakistan
   Compare the totals for the two most recent periods. Use the statistics to make a pie diagram.
4. The Equal Pay Act and the Sex Discrimination Act came into effect on 29 December 1975. Collect newspaper cuttings in an attempt to determine whether these laws are effective. Compare your findings as a group.
5. Although people are categorised according to colour of skin, this does not tell us anything about their morals, character or intelligence. Nevertheless we must accept colour as a classification commonly used. Bearing this in mind, find out which people have these characteristics:
   (a) short frizzy hair, wide lips and nose
   (b) slanting eyes
   (c) thin lips and protruding nose

CSE QUESTIONS

1. All advanced industrial societies, such as Britain, have an ageing population.
   (a) What do you understand by the term ageing population?
   (b) What has caused Britain to have an ageing population?
   (c) Write about *three* social consequences of an ageing population.
   (East Anglian Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
2. (a) Explain the following terms used by population experts and in each case give the figures for Great Britain: (i) birth rate (ii) death rate (iii) national increase rate (iv) infant mortality rate (v) population density.
   (b) Describe how and why *one* of the above has changed in Great Britain over the past hundred years.
   (East Anglian Board for CSE, Social Studies Specimen Paper)

# Unit 6 *LAW AND ORDER*

Putting the boot in



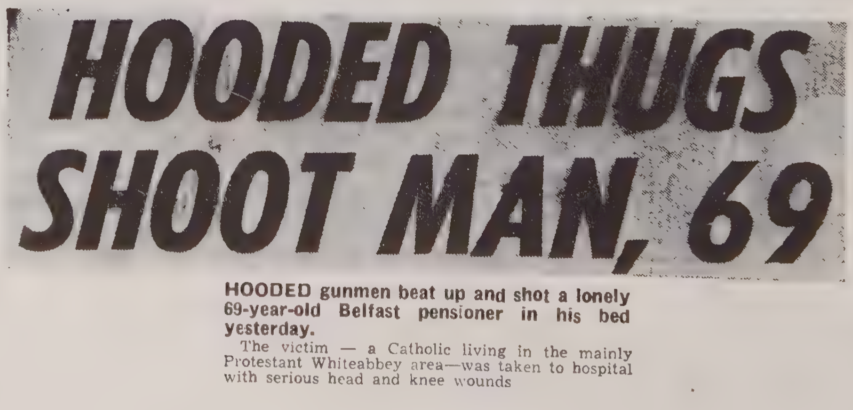
## BUS 'WAR' ON THUGS

BUS workers and their employers are to combine forces in a bid to beat late-night thugs.

A joint "teach-in" will draw up secret plans to stamp out hooliganism on London's buses.

Nearly 500 conductors and drivers were assaulted during late night runs in London last year

One conductor, who was blinded in one eye and partly paralysed after an attack, is still in hospital.



## HOODED THUGS SHOOT MAN, 69

**HOODED gunmen beat up and shot a lonely 69-year-old Belfast pensioner in his bed yesterday.**

The victim — a Catholic living in the mainly Protestant Whiteabbey area—was taken to hospital with serious head and knee wounds

## TOPIC 6.1 IS LAW AND ORDER BREAKING DOWN?

Look at these newspaper cuttings. Do they give you the idea of a lawless society? Many people have the impression that law and order is breaking down because those who break the law get so much publicity. Some newspapers thrive on sensationalism. Their readers are not interested in the millions of people who keep the law. People who keep the law do not make *news*. Stories of hijacking, kidnapping, violence, hooliganism and mugging are given a great deal of publicity. Although there is evidence of increases in more *serious* crimes, the mass of the people are law-abiding citizens.

### SOME REASONS WHY PEOPLE BREAK THE LAW

1. For 'kicks', e.g. drugs, muggings, etc.
2. Unsettled home background, especially in an urban environment
3. Greed: 'have-nots' against the 'haves'
4. Revolt of individualists against restrictions
5. Easily led: mob behaviour by weak characters
6. Bad example from parents
7. Decline of religion and moral standards
8. Abnormal instincts, e.g. perverts
9. Think they will 'get away with it'
10. Inadequate, physically or mentally

No doubt you have sometimes been told, 'You can't do that. It's against the law.' The speaker means the action you are contemplating is against the body of rules which we must obey if we are to stay out of trouble. If we were in a different country we would have to obey a different set of rules. In the Republic of South Africa it is against the law for a white person to marry a black person. We live in a democracy and the majority of our laws have been made *by* the people *for* the benefit and protection of the people. Laws are not made simply for the sake of restricting people.

Our laws are considered sensible by the British people or they would not be obeyed. Nearly everybody agrees that it is wrong to kill a fellow human, so we accept that murder must be made illegal.

In a totalitarian state, where a dictator lays down laws, the majority of people may not agree but they obey just the same. The Germans obeyed Hitler because he had the Gestapo and the SS to make sure his orders were carried out. Do you think the German people believed it morally right to exterminate millions of Jews in gas chambers? Is it true to say that people get the government and the law they deserve?

Mr Bumble the Beadle in *Oliver Twist* said, 'The law is an ass.' If people think that laws are stupid or unjust, they may disobey them. Young people commonly break the law which forbids them to buy alcoholic drinks in public houses until they are eighteen. The Industrial Relations Act of 1971 was opposed by many trade unionists because they regarded it as a piece of class legislation which took away many of their rights and privileges. The Housing Finance Act of 1972 was defied by councillors at Clay Cross. The Tolpuddle Martyrs challenged the anti-trade union laws in 1834 and were sentenced to seven years' transportation, while the suffragettes willingly went to prison in their fight to secure votes for women.

If we do not like certain laws we must work to get them amended. We can do this by working for the election of a government which will change the law. The Labour Government of March 1974 was returned with a majority large enough to allow it to amend the 1971 Industrial Relations Act and the 1972 Housing Finance Act.

In Britain we have three main types of law:

1. **Common law** has been passed down through the ages. For centuries there have been rules commonly recognised to be law. These were rules or laws common to the whole country.
2. **Statute law** consists of laws passed by Parliament and *written* in statute or law books. Every Act of Parliament adds to statute law.
3. **Case law** is so called because a court case has taken place and a judge has given a ruling on a point of law. The judge bases his decision on the law of the land and the interpretation previously given to it by other judges. The judge's decision forms the basis of future law.

Our laws are also divided in another way: into **criminal law** and **civil law**.

## TOPIC 6.2 CRIMINAL LAW

Criminal law concerns offences committed by individuals against the community. These range from serious crimes such as murder to larceny or petty thefts. A person can only be convicted of theft if it can be proved

(a) that he intended to deprive another person of his property permanently;

(b) that he took the property without the owner's consent.

If an owner willingly gives up his property, but is persuaded to do so by deceitful means, it is called fraud.

There is no real proof that the suspension of the death penalty has resulted in more murders. Are you in favour of bringing back the death penalty for convicted murderers?

If a person causes the death of another but it can be proved that he did not intentionally intend to kill, the crime is known as manslaughter.

Actions which break the law are known as offences and are of two types: indictable and non-indictable. **Indictable offences** were once tried before a jury but may now be tried by magistrates if the accused agrees. **Non-indictable offences** are heard in a magistrates' court with no jury. Of the 2 million or so cases each year where people are found guilty, the majority are non-indictable as the table shows.

There are five main types of offence:

1. *Offences against persons,* e.g. assault, wounding (where the skin is broken), grievous bodily harm (GBH) where severe injuries are inflicted, manslaughter and murder.
2. *Offences against property*, e.g. theft, fraud, forgery, malicious damage, and robbery.
3. *Traffic offences,* e.g. failing to obey traffic signs, riding a bicycle dangerously, having faulty brakes and riding on the footpath.
4. *Sexual offences*, e.g. bigamy, rape and incest.
5. *Offences against the state*, e.g. perjury (telling a lie on oath), treason or unlawful assembly.

Some crimes cut across these divisions, e.g. robbery with violence. The robbery is a criminal offence against *property* while the violence is a criminal offence against the *person*. Some of the Great Train Robbers were given thirty years' imprisonment for this offence.

## TOPIC 6.3 CIVIL LAW

The Civil law deals with the rights, duties and responsibilities of individual members of the community to one another. A civil wrong or injury inflicted by one person on another is known as a *tort*. When two people are in dispute over something they do not usually bring the law into it. If you quarrel with neighbours the matter is likely to be settled without involving any legal authority. If a quarrel gets out of hand an individual may be forced to seek *legal advice*. If your father finds that a next-door neighbour has moved the fence, so

THE HANGING ARGUMENT

| *For* | *Against* |
|---|---|
| 1. The murderer cannot kill again | 1. Wrong person may be hanged, e.g. Timothy Evans |
| 2. It deters others | 2. Statistics indicate it is not a deterrent |
| 3. An imprisoned murderer might escape | 3. If it is wrong to kill, then the state should not do it |
| 4. Cheaper than keeping murderers in prison | 4. Terrible effect on those who carry out sentence |
| 5. Retribution – a life for a life | 5. Against Christian ethics – i.e. belief in love (not an eye for an eye) |
| 6. Majority of people think murderers should hang | 6. Purpose of punishment should be to rehabilitate |
| 7. Protects police and prison officers | 7. Brings more violence, e.g. if IRA terrorists were hanged |
| 8. Gives consolation to relatives of the victim | 8. Murderer is often mentally ill |

taking some of your garden, a solicitor's letter is likely to get him to move the fence back. If a builder provides a £100 estimate for repairs and sends in a bill for £150, the matter can usually be settled *out of court* through solicitors. If the difference between two individuals is very great, it may have to be settled in court.

Throughout this book we have been confronted with the problems experienced by a community of individuals trying to live in harmony. When individuals are in dispute about a **contract** or agreement, then it is the function of civil law to decide on the rights and wrongs of the case. Compensation or damages may be awarded under civil law to any individual who has suffered in any way through the actions of another. Contracts are involved in

1. family law – marriage and divorce
2. company law – formation and dissolving of companies
3. law of trusts – a trustee deals with the property of others
4. law of succession – inheritance.

Civil law is concerned with documents ensuring that individuals secure benefits, services or conveniences to which they are legally entitled. For instance, civil law lays down requirements for making *wills*. When a person dies, everything he leaves comes under his *estate* and is shared out according to wishes expressed in his will. A person's will is a legal document.

Other examples of civil law include:

1. *Nuisance*. No individual should interfere with other people's freedom to enjoy reasonable rights.
2. *Negligence*. It may be a civil offence if a person is injured by the action or lack of action of others.
3. *Trespass*. It is not a criminal offence to trespass, but a trespasser can be sued in the civil courts.
4. *Slander and libel*. Slander means that one person damages another's reputation by making a false statement; libel is a similar offence but the statement is in writing.

Some cases involve both civil and criminal law. If a spectator at a football match beats up a rival supporter so that he is unable to work for several weeks, then the person who caused the injury could be sued by

1. the opposing supporter under *civil law* for damages; or
2. the Crown under *criminal law* for assault and battery.

The civil case would be heard in a civil court while the criminal case would be tried in a criminal court.

CRIME STATISTICS FOR 1976
(England and Wales)

| *Non-indictable offences* | *Persons found guilty* | *Indictable offences* | *Persons found guilty* |
|---|---|---|---|
| | (000) | | (000) |
| Motoring | 1,253.9 | Theft and receiving | 225.9 |
| Intoxicating liquor | 111.9 | Burglary | 67.8 |
| Taxation | 111.1 | Criminal damage | 40.8 |
| Wireless telegraphy | 35.1 | Violence | 38.4 |
| Assault | 12.4 | Fraud and forgery | 21.4 |
| Railways | 13.3 | Sex offences | 6.6 |
| Others | 119.4 | Robbery | 3.6 |
| | | Others | 13.0 |
| | 1,657.1 | | 415.5 |

(Source: Annual Abstract of Statistics, 1977. H.M.S.O.)

## TOPIC 6.4 CRIMINAL COURTS

If you have ever been in a courtroom, it is likely that you have been to a **magistrates' court**. There are 21,000 magistrates and they deal with 98 per cent of criminal cases. Magistrates have limited powers of punishment, e.g. they cannot impose more than twelve months' imprisonment, but they investigate more serious offences before passing them to a crown court.

There is no jury in a magistrates' court. Cases are tried usually by three magistrates, although between two and seven may sit. The magistrates base their decision upon a simple majority. If they are in doubt about the accused's innocence or guilt they retire to make their decision. As they are not legal experts, magistrates are advised by the *Clerk to the Justices*. Magistrates, or **justices of the peace** (JPs) as they are also called, are not paid. The appointment of magistrates is sometimes criticised as being shrouded in secrecy, but any individual or group can recommend a person to be a magistrate.

Let us imagine that you are charged with cycling the wrong way up a one-way street. The charge is read out by the Clerk of the Court and you are asked to plead 'guilty' or 'not guilty'. If you plead 'guilty' the police officer prosecuting gives a brief account of the incident. You are asked if there is anything you wish to say in defence (perhaps you did not know it was a one-way street!). The magistrates then decide on the penalty, e.g. a £10 fine, and ask you if you can pay. If you cannot pay immediately the magistrates are likely to allow you a certain period (e.g. twenty-eight days) or they may listen to an account of your means and ask you to suggest weekly amounts. If you offer £1 a week the magistrates may accept or they may insist upon £2 a week and make an order to that effect.

If an accused person pleads 'not guilty' a **trial** is necessary. The prosecuting solicitor describes details of the offence, reads out any statement made by the accused and calls **witnesses** who give evidence on oath in support of the allegations. These witnesses are questioned by the solicitors for the prosecution and the defence. If the accused has no solicitor he may question the witnesses himself. The defending solicitor may be able to call witnesses to support the defence's plea of 'not guilty'. The accused will probably go into the *witness box*, because evidence given by him on **oath** carries more weight with the magistrates than casual statements. The accused can then be cross-examined by the prosecuting solicitor. The prosecution close their case and the defence solicitor puts forward a plea on behalf of the accused. If the magistrates decide there is no case to answer he will be acquitted. If they decide to convict, consideration is given to the accused's history

FOR AND AGAINST THE MAGISTERIAL SYSTEM

| *For* | *Against* |
|---|---|
| Cheap – JPs are not paid | Three people try a case which could be decided easily by one paid stipendiary magistrate |
| Without voluntary work much less would be done for the community | Difficult to find people of the right quality, intelligence and compassion |
| Magistrates are drawn from people experienced in the ordinary business of living | Too much secrecy about their selection |
| People uncluttered with legal trappings can best decide on rights and wrongs of a case | Represent the middle class and have little appreciation of the struggles of the poor |
| A magistrates' court is better than a 'police court'. JPs are impartial | Too soft with their sentencing (say some of the police) |
| Usually men and women sit together in judgement | Too easily influenced by the police |
| Since 1966 they are trained for the job | Don't move with the times; average age too old |

and his means before **sentencing** takes place.

There has been an attempt in recent years to get more people with a working-class background upon the bench of magistrates, and since 1966 there has been compulsory training for new justices. JPs are not expected to be legal experts.

If a person accused of a crime cannot be brought before a magistrates' court within one day, and the offence is not serious, the police must release him on **bail**. He is then discharged temporarily but must appear at a police station or court at an appointed time. Magistrates also have the discretion to grant bail in accordance with the provisions of the Bail Act of 1976. They will not grant bail to people who are unlikely to turn up at a future court hearing or who may interfere with police inquiries if released.

If John Smith is arrested by the police and charged with murdering his wife, although the crime is so serious that it warrants a sentence more serious than magistrates can impose, proceedings would still be heard before magistrates in the first place. These are known as committal proceedings.

If the magistrates find there is a case to answer they will pass it on to a crown court. These courts were established by the 1971 Courts Act. There are crown courts at ninety centrally situated towns. Crown courts are divided into three tiers.

High court judges deal with the most serious cases while circuit judges deal with more serious cases than recorders.

If the accused pleads 'guilty', crown court procedure is very similar to that of the magistrates' court, but the big difference occurs if there is a plea of 'not guilty' and the trial takes place before a jury. Twelve men and women aged between twenty-one and sixty are chosen from a group summoned to appear as jurors. They listen carefully to the evidence and return a verdict on questions of *fact*. As long as ten of the twelve agree, a verdict can be reached. During his summing-up, the judge will give directions to the jury on points of law. If they find the accused guilty, the *penalty* is a matter for the judge.

An individual found guilty may **appeal**. The right to appeal is not automatic. Of 5,776 convicted people who wanted to appeal to the Criminal Division in 1973, 1,055 were granted the right to do so. The ultimate appeal is to the law lords in the House of Lords.

### TOPIC 6.5 OTHER COURTS

**Juvenile courts** deal with young persons under the age of seventeen, although no child under ten years of age can be held to be criminally responsible in England and Wales. Young offenders are dealt with in a humane way. The magistrates pay great regard to the welfare of the offender.

| *Tier* | *No. of centres* | *Officials* | *Cases* |
|---|---|---|---|
| First | 24 | High court or circuit judges | Criminal and civil |
| Second | 19 | High court or circuit judges | Criminal only |
| Third | 46 | Circuit judges and recorder | Criminal only |

SPECIAL POINTS ABOUT JUVENILE COURTS

1. No more than three magistrates
2. There must be male and female magistrates
3. Held separately from magistrates' court and usually in a different room
4. Informal procedure
5. Journalists cannot reveal names, addresses, school of the accused, or anything which leads to identification
6. Public not present

Under the Children and Young Persons Act of 1969 there are two types of procedure in juvenile courts:

1. *Care proceedings*, if it is thought the young person is beyond control.
2. *Criminal proceedings*, if the young person has committed criminal offences.

| *Procedure* | *Possible decisions* |
|---|---|
| Care proceedings | Put in the care of local authority<br>Parents bound over<br>Payment (damages or compensation)<br>Guardianship order |
| Criminal proceedings | Any of the decisions above<br>Absolute discharge<br>Conditional discharge<br>Fine (up to £50)<br>Attendance centre<br>Detention centre<br>Borstal training |

A severe penalty for a young person is *Borstal training* which can last as long as two years. The first Borstal was opened at a place of that name near Rochester in Kent. The sentence is indeterminate, which means that if the young person responds to the training he may be freed before his sentence is completed. All those leaving Borstal are released on licence; if they break the law they may be recalled to serve for six months, or the rest of their sentence, whichever is the longer. *Community homes* replaced approved schools in 1973; they cater for youngsters under seventeen, many of whom come from homes where parents have insufficient control over them. The strict discipline of *detention centres* provides a short sharp shock. *Attendance centres* are often used as a punishment for soccer hooligans. They may have to report at 3 p.m. on Saturdays to some place designated by the court. There they will have to do physical training or some social work. *Remand homes* house young people waiting for a report to be made upon them. Children who have been committed to the care of a local authority, but who have not committed any criminal act, may spend some time in a remand home.

*Coroner's courts.* About 350 **coroner's courts** hold *inquests* on unexplained deaths. A coroner should be a doctor or a member of the legal profession. A coroner's court does not try a case, but merely attempts to establish the facts. A post-mortem may be ordered on the occasion of a sudden death; an inquest will then be held if death was not from natural causes. If it is found at the inquest that Mrs Smith's death was due to murder by her husband, then Mr Smith will go for trial in the criminal courts.

*Civil courts.* Minor civil cases are dealt with by **county courts**, while more serious cases go to the **high courts.**

There are 375 county courts in England and Wales with over 100 county court judges. Each judge has a *circuit* covering as many as twelve towns. In busy towns there are daily sittings, but other county courts are held weekly or monthly. County courts deal with cases where the disputed sum is less than £750, hire purchase disputes, adoption and divorce cases, etc. A person wishing to bring a civil action has to decide whether to take it to a county court or a high court.

Since the 1970 Administration of Justices Act, the branches of the High Court are:

1. Family Division, dealing with adoption, wardship of minors, guardianship and matrimonial disputes.
2. Chancery Division, dealing with wills and estates.
3. Queen's Bench Division, dealing with the greatest number of cases, including all those not allocated to other divisions of the high court.

## TOPIC 6.6 PUNISHING OFFENDERS

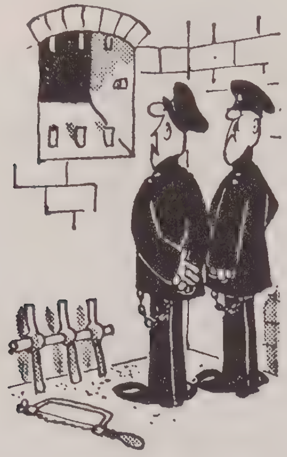
Why do we punish offenders? It is not just because their behaviour is different from everybody else's, i.e. the norm. We know that people's behaviour

Mohan Hartung Singh of Bedford was the first Sikh to be charged under a new law making crash helmets compulsory. In this photograph he is being booked for the twenty-fourth time (14 August 1973)

may be social or anti-social, i.e. *for the community* or *against the community*. Society does not object to a Sikh wearing a turban. But it did object when Sikhs wore turbans on motor cycles instead of the crash helmets that were required by law. Is it anti-social not to wear a crash helmet? A Sikh might argue that he was not doing anybody else any harm. Yet if he had a serious accident an ambulance might have to attend. If treated in hospital he would take up medical services which could be used for other members of the community. We are all interrelated and we are faced again with the problem of having to restrict the freedom of one person for the sake of the community.

We punish people for many different reasons:

1. To deter offenders, e.g. more road deaths occur with fast driving, so if a person is fined for speeding he may think twice before he speeds again.
2. To protect the rest of the community, e.g. a man may be bound over to keep the peace.
3. To improve an individual, e.g. Borstal training includes learning a useful craft as well as learning to behave.
4. To give another chance, e.g. a suspended sentence.
5. To help, e.g. probation officers give guidance.
6. To make good any damage done, e.g. com-



'I've always known that deep down he didn't like it here.'

pensation to victims.

7. To ensure safety of the public, e.g. a driver may lose his licence because he drives dangerously.
8. To allow society to take its revenge, e.g. capital punishment (hanging).

I am not too happy about the last reason. Are you? Although Parliament suspended the death penalty for murder in 1970, a Gallup Poll in December 1974 suggested that 75 per cent of the public favoured hanging IRA bombers. Do you believe in hanging terrorists who place bombs near innocent people? Would hanging stop the bombing or bring more terror? No one has been hanged in Britain for several years, but legally it is still a possible sentence for piracy and for setting fire to ships in naval dockyards.

Sentences in Britain range from conditional discharge to imprisonment for life:

1. *Discharge.* An absolute discharge carries no punishment, but it is more usual to have a conditional discharge, which is conditional on there being no further offence committed for a period not exceeding three years.
2. *Fines.* These are the commonest punishments. If the maximum fine fixed by law is £100, for a first offence, the actual fine could be about £20, depending upon circumstances and previous record.
3. *Probation.* The offender agrees to be the subject of a probation order for a certain period, e.g. two years. He promises to live an industrious life, to report to his probation officer regularly and accept his advice.
4. *Suspended sentence.* If an offender is found guilty of another offence during a period of suspended sentence, he is liable to be made to serve the original sentence. He is put on trial for a period which can be up to three years.
5. *Imprisonment.* Offenders are not usually sent to prison for a first offence unless it is very serious. Those serving more than one month (apart from 'lifers') have one-third of their sentence remitted unless remission is reduced for a breach of prison discipline. *Parole* was introduced by the Criminal Justice Act of 1967; this means that a prisoner who has served one-third of his sentence or twelve months (whichever is the longer) may be released on licence if he satisfies the Parole Board that he has made progress in prison and his release will not endanger the community.

The Home Office divides prisons into four categories ranging from *maximum security prisons* in Category A to *open prisons* in Category D. Prisons such as Wandsworth and Parkhurst were made maximum security prisons after the Mountbatten Report. Dangerous criminals and those serving long sentences are held in a carefully guarded 'prison within a prison'. Prisoners who are unlikely to try to escape, such as those who have made one slip in an otherwise unblemished life, may be sent to an open prison such as Ashwell prison which has boundaries but no prison walls.

What do you think of the ideas set out opposite?

## TOPIC 6.7 THE POLICE

Have you any rules at your school or youth club? It is no good making rules which cannot be enforced. We saw in Unit 2 how even teenage gangs have rules or unwritten laws. The main job of the police is to make sure that the law is kept and that people behave in an orderly way. There can be no worthwhile economic or social life without order. The continuation of socially useful work in hospitals, schools, youth clubs, community centres, etc., necessitates the maintenance of law and order.

A policemen is like a football referee. When you play without a referee arguments develop:

'It wasn't in!'

'That was a dirty foul.'

'I'm not going to play, then!'

At professional football matches the referee comes in for a lot of 'aggro', but his role is to see that the game continues in an orderly way. The same is true of the police in modern society.

The police force is made up of different branches – uniformed police, the CID, mounted police and river police – but they are all concerned with the job of seeing that the law is kept. It is often a thankless job, especially as they are understaffed. In Britain there is one policeman to every 500 people.

It is natural that as some youngsters pass through adolescence they are wary of the police. In a study made by Dr William Benson for the Metropolitan Police (*The Public and the Police*, published by Harper & Row, 1975), interviews with 1,700 people revealed that while 31 per cent of adults like the police 'very much' only 16 per cent of 13 to 20-year-olds do so, and 41 per cent of young people were 'just a bit scared' of the police. Sixty-six per cent thought the police discriminated against demonstrators, students and greasers, 50 per cent thought they discriminated against long-haired hippies and 20 per cent thought the police were against young coloureds.

The police are there to see that rules are kept, but we often act instinctively against rules. If a notice in a bus says 'Do not spit' we may feel like spitting just to show them!

If we are to obey the rules we have to appreciate the purpose of them. This is why we have studied the law before turning to those who have the difficult job of seeing that people keep it. If we don't want to be murdered, we will support the police because they try to stop murders. The police are our paid representatives in preserving law and order, but in the end it is the job of each of us to see the law is kept.

### SOME POSSIBLE CHANGES IN TREATMENT OF OFFENDERS

1. More community service instead of fines or imprisonment (this was started under the Criminal Justice Act of 1972)
2. Indeterminate sentences, i.e. until authorities are satisfied that prisoner has been rehabilitated
3. Prisoners to do more useful work and be better paid so that they have a greater chance when released; this is being tried at Coldingley
4. Family courts where magistrates and parents discuss a case together
5. Increased opportunities for educational training and psychological treatment (Grendon Underwood is a small psychiatric prison hospital)
6. Spend more on probation and after care (in 1977/8 about £900 million was spent on police and prisons and £30 million on probation and after care)
7. Less use of the dock in courts; it has been described as a giant cage
8. Extension of legal aid
9. Youth Treatment Centres for children severely disturbed and disruptive; three centres are in use for offenders aged 12–19
10. Improved prisons to prevent overcrowding

600 police clash with pop fans at Windsor Great Park, 1974

The duties of the police are so numerous that we can only look at a few:

1. *Crime prevention*. During their training the police learn that **crime prevention** is their primary duty. If the police can prevent crimes they do not have to catch criminals.
2. *Public relations*. A peaceful atmosphere in the community makes the job of the police easier. They are there to help *most* people and hinder only a *few* (i.e. the few who are *anti-society*). A policeman might help you to find your way when lost. They try to win the understanding of young people.
3. *Traffic*. We live in an urban environment with 15 million motor vehicles, in addition to millions of cyclists and pedestrians. If the police did not regulate traffic there would be chaos. One of the problems of the police in recent years has been antagonism between them and motorists, caused by the increasing number of traffic offences. This is hardly the fault of the police. They have to keep traffic moving. About 7,000 people die in road accidents every year and 400,000 are injured, so there must be laws to prevent road-users behaving foolishly. The police have to prosecute motorists who break speed limits. Those who drink and drive are *anti-society*. Many recent laws such as the breathalyser, minimum tread on tyres, compulsory seat belts and MOT certificates have burdened the police with additional responsibilities. But the laws are passed by Parliament which is elected by the people. The police do not make the laws; they have the unenviable job of enforcing them.

   It is often not appreciated that the police deal with far more traffic offences by verbal cautions than by arrests or summonses.

TRAFFIC OFFENCES 1973

| *Verbal cautions* | *Written cautions* | *Summons* | *Arrests* |
|---|---|---|---|
| 356,688 | 17,604 | 173,870 | 53,741 |

4. *General help for the public*. By 1976 there were

over 4,500 policewomen and they are especially important in times of distress.

5. *Police patrols*. The policeman on the beat is trained to deal with a thousand and one things. He has to check that business premises are locked; he may have to arrest a murderer. Although panda cars and walkie-talkie devices improve communications, the commonplace job of the uniformed policeman on the beat is still vital. The village policeman keeps a friendly eye on rural life and often knows all the people in the village.

The police are assisted in their work by 25,000 *special constables* and 6,000 *traffic wardens*. There are also 28,000 civilian helpers who are not members of the force and about 5,000 police cadets.

A **chief constable** is responsible for all decisions relating to his force. The local **Police Authority** (two-thirds local councillors and one-third JPs) looks after equipment and accommodation but has no control over the functions of the police.

Chief constables are responsible to the **Home Secretary** for the smooth running of the force. The Home Secretary has direct control over the *Metropolitan Police* but in practice the Commissioner of Police is the officer responsible for Greater London.

The majority of people obey the law because they are *for society* rather than *anti-society*.

### REASONS WHY PEOPLE OBEY THE LAW

1. It is advantageous to the majority of people that there should be a peaceful environment and not a 'free for all'
2. People can see the common sense behind most laws
3. They have been brought up to obey the law
4. We associate ourselves with the law because we participate in law-making – we elect members of Parliament who pass the laws
5. Ordinary people take part in administering the law – they may become JPs and any citizen has the right to arrest a criminal, i.e. someone who breaks the law
6. We realise that we have to give up some freedoms for the benefit of all, e.g. I must give up my freedom to drink and drive for the safety of the community

'Great news, Mr Dobson. We've found traces of blood in your alcohol stream.'

### EXPLAIN WHAT IS MEANT BY:

common law
statute law
case law
criminal law
civil law
indictable offences
non-indictable offences
contract
magistrates' court
justices of the peace
trial
witnesses
oath
sentencing
bail
appeal
juvenile courts
coroner's courts
county courts
high courts
crime prevention
chief constable
Police Authority
Home Secretary

### CASE STUDY: A LITTLE MISTAKE

Tom Redgrave was what is known as a recidivist, but it was now five years since he had committed a crime. After three periods inside, he had been determined to go straight. If he was caught again he might easily go down for ten years. Tom was twenty-nine and he had decided that crime did not pay.

After his release from prison Tom tried several jobs but did not last in any of them. Life became more and more difficult; he was hungry and tempted to steal. Tom could not afford new clothes and his appearance became distinctly scruffy. He looked so rough and unkempt that he attracted the attention of every policeman in town. Tom had 'form'.

At last he decided that he would have to pull a job. He collected the tools of the trade – his stocking mask, torch, jemmy, gloves and the black valise in which to put the loot. He crept through the darkness to a prosperous-looking house that he had 'cased' for several weeks. He was sure he was not followed.

Tom put on his black gloves, slipped the catch on a side window, and let himself in. The occupants were on holiday and would not be back for another week. Tom had prepared his plans meticulously. He glided swiftly over to the safe and twiddled the combination lock. The responding clicks told him he had not lost any of his skill. The adrenalin made his heart beat faster and his mouth went dry. The safe door swung open and Tom shone his light inside. There was a silver coffee set and a thick wad of tenners.

Tom was determined to leave no clues. In spite of the fact that he was wearing gloves he dusted everything with his handkerchief as an extra precaution; but he had an uneasy feeling that he had forgotten something. Tom looked round carefully. Everything seemed in order. He was sure he had left no clues but he still felt uneasy. He moved quickly to the window, climbed out and walked briskly along the road with his black bag clutched tightly in his hand.

'Hey you!' shouted somebody from the darkness. Tom walked more quickly.

'Hey, you! Stop in the name of the law!"

Tom's fast walk changed into a fast run and he heard heavy feet pounding behind him. He was a good sprinter but the policeman was a better one. Tom could hear the officer's size twelves pounding closer. Soon a heavy hand fell on his shoulder.

'What are you running for, old son?' said the officer.

'There's no law against running, is there? said Tom.

'Less of your lip. Let's see what's in your black bag.'

Tom was sweating like mad as the policemen's grip tightened. 'All right,' said Tom. 'It's a fair cop.'

He opened the black valise. It was empty. He now realised that the one thing he had forgotten was to take the valuables from the safe.

1. What are recidivists and what can society do to help them?
2. What reasons can you put forward for the probation service keeping in contact with people released from jail?
3. Give three reasons why it is difficult for an ex-prisoner to hold down a job. Name some organisations which help ex-prisoners.
4. See if you can find out what is meant by 'the police gave him the verbal'. What phrase associated with 'the verbal' is used in this case study?

### FOLLOW-UP

1. Give five possible reasons why more people seem to be breaking the law.
2. List laws which you consider
   (a) are out-of-date
   (b) ought to be passed
3. Why is mugging such a 'bad' crime?
4. Write notes to be used in a debate on the motion 'Criminals are made, not born'.
5. Suggest reasons why women commit fewer crimes than men.

### ACTIVITIES

1. Write an account of a visit to a court.
2. Make a rough map of a policeman's beat in your area.
3. Use dictionaries and/or reference books to find the meaning of:
   (a) legal separation
   (b) paternity
   (c) stipendiary magistrates
   (d) summary punishment
4. Carry out a survey of your group to find their ideas on attitudes towards the police.
5. Design a poster for a police recruitment campaign.

### CSE QUESTIONS

1. 'Whether you like it or not, it is the law and must be obeyed.' Discuss this statement.
   (East Anglian Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
2. Write an essay explaining clearly why some people break the law.
   (East Anglian Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
3. Write about the arguments for and against capital punishment (the death sentence).
   (East Anglian Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
4. Explain the duties in a criminal trial of (a) the judge, (b) the defending or prosecuting counsel, (c) the jury.

(East Anglian Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)

5. John Smith is arrested by the police and charged with murdering his wife. Explain clearly the processes by which he is tried and a verdict reached.
(East Anglian Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)

6. (a) Explain *all* of the following terms: remand home; Borstal; open prison; maximum security prison.
(b) What changes, if any, do you feel could be made in our treatment of offenders?
(Metropolitan Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)

7. There are many ways of dealing with young people convicted of criminal offences. Explain briefly what happens to people given the following sentences:
(a) Approved School
(b) Borstal Training
(c) Attendance Centre
(d) Probation
(East Midland Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
*Author's note.* Since 1973 Approved Schools have been replaced by Community Homes.

8. The prevention and detection of crime is the responsibility of the Police Force. Explain how the Police Force is organised to carry out this responsibility, and give examples showing how else they maintain law and order.
(East Midland Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)

# III LIVING AND LEARNING

## Unit 7 *COMMUNICATIONS AND THE MASS MEDIA*

The most famous communication of all

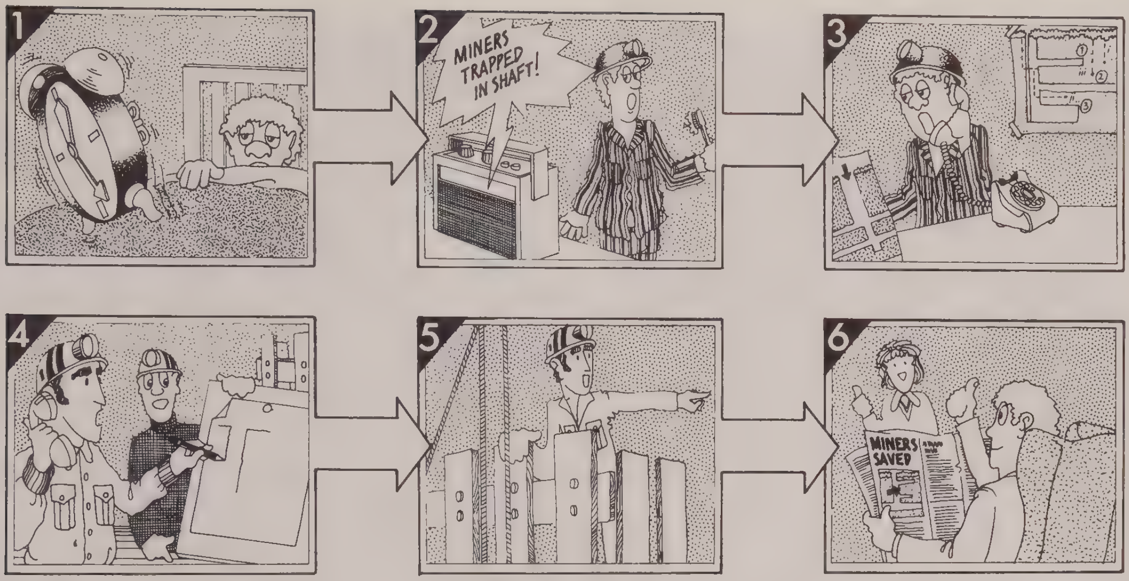
### TOPIC 7.1 COMMUNICATION WITH OTHERS

In the early stages of life, **communication** is a simple process. Mother and baby communicate by noises and signs. The cries of the baby tell its mother that it is hungry. A smile is a sign that the food tastes all right while a grimace may mean, 'It's nasty, take it away.'

It is important that the method of communication is understood by the *sender* and the *receiver*. A picture may put over a message better than words.

The method by which people communicate a message is known as the **medium**. The plural of 'medium' is **media**. This is a word we use to describe the many ways by which people communicate. You should be able to add to this list of ways of communicating:

signs
words
photographs
sounds
drawings
music



Some methods of communication

Can you communicate by actions? If you marched out of the room and banged the door, both the noise and the action would communicate your displeasure. If somebody hit you or kissed you, would you get the message?

Two people can have personal communication by speaking face-to-face or telephoning or writing a letter. These are media for passing messages. When very many people are influenced by methods of communication we call them **mass media**. A huge industry has grown up by which messages are communicated to masses of people by newspapers, magazines, television, radio, films, advertising, etc.

We will return to some of the concepts which have threaded their way through this book from the first unit. If you are to develop as an individual, with your own distinctive personality and character, you must be on your guard against the power of the mass media. People may behave in an abnormal way when they act *en masse*. They are influenced by the crowd. Have you ever been part of a crowd which shouted 'Off, off' at a footballer or hurled abuse at the referee? You were acting instinctively, motivated by group behaviour. In the environment of the crowd you experienced a loss of individual characteristics. In your heart you may not have really agreed with the crowd. It is easy to become caught up in mass hysteria.

It is so easy to get caught up in mass hysteria. Who was David Cassidy anyway?

Let us consider a few people who have stood aside from the mass. In the sixteenth century Copernicus wrote a book to communicate the fact that the planets, including the earth, revolved round the sun. His book was not published until after his death because he thought the authorities might put him to death for disagreeing with the **conventional opinion** of the day. People were unwilling to change their ideas; but changes in ideas and people are inevitable, as we have seen.

After the death of Copernicus, his belief that the earth revolved round the sun was proved right by Galileo who was imprisoned for his pains. Galileo was compelled to sign a confession that he was wrong. Even while he was signing, the earth continued to travel round the sun!

In the seventeenth century William Harvey demonstrated the circulation of the blood. The mass of doctors disagreed and he was struck off the Medical Register. Even while they were striking out his name, the heart continued to pump blood round the body as it always has done and always will.

These three men proved that the individual may be right while the masses are wrong. Keep this thought in mind as you study the mass media.

### TOPIC 7.2 NEWSPAPERS

What newspapers do you take in your home? Jot down all the newspapers you can. Have you listed ten? If so you have done quite well, but it may surprise you to know that there are over 1,300 newspapers published in Britain. You could hardly be expected to know them all, especially as many of them are **specialised newspapers**, whose circulation is limited to a certain region of the country or

Lord Soper communicates with the masses

to a special interest such as a particular sport, hobby or business activity.

There are more papers bought by people in Britain than by citizens of any other nation of the world. Our papers are not the biggest in the world – some American papers have been published with over 1,000 pages – but our *News of the World* has a circulation of about 6 million copies throughout Britain. As most of these copies go into households where they are available for three or four people, probably about 20 million people see the *News of the World.* This paper contains quite a lot of stories about sex and violence. Does this tell you anything about the British people? Are they sex-mad and violent? Do they love reading about these things? Is it a way of getting these things out of their system?

We can divide up our newspapers in various ways. All of these are useful classifications, although you will see that many of the newspapers fall into more than one group.

CLASSIFICATION OF NEWSPAPERS

1. *By taste*

| *So-called popular papers* | *So-called quality papers* |
|---|---|
| *Daily Express*<br>*Daily Mail*<br>*Daily Mirror*<br>*Morning Star*<br>*News of the World*<br>*Sunday Express*<br>*Sunday Mirror*<br>*Sun*<br>*Sunday People* | *Financial Times*<br>*Daily Telegraph*<br>*Guardian*<br>*Observer*<br>*Sunday Telegraph*<br>*The Sunday Times*<br>*The Times* |

2. *By layout or format*

| *Tabloids*<br>*(short and fat)* | *Broadsheets*<br>*(long and thin)* |
|---|---|
| *Daily Mail*<br>*Daily Mirror*<br>*Sunday Mirror*<br>*Sun*<br>*Sunday People* | *Daily Express*<br>*Financial Times*<br>*Morning Star*<br>*Daily Telegraph*<br>*Sunday Express*<br>*Guardian*<br>*Observer*<br>*Sunday Telegraph*<br>*The Sunday Times* |

3. *Regional Papers*

| *Northern England* | *Scotland* |
|---|---|
| *Liverpool Daily Post*<br>*Northern Echo* (Darlington)<br>*Sunday Sun* (Newcastle)<br>*Yorkshire Post* (Leeds) | *Courier and Advertiser* (Dundee)<br>*Daily Record* (Glasgow)<br>*Press and Journal* (Aberdeen)<br>*The Glasgow Herald*<br>*The Scotsman* (Edinburgh) |

| *Northern Ireland* | *Wales* |
|---|---|
| *Irish News*<br>*The News-letter* | *Western Mail* (Cardiff) |

If your region is mentioned, see if you can add some more names. Include evening and Sunday papers. If your region is not mentioned, make a list of newspapers circulating in your area.

4. *By political opinion.* Ask your parents and other adults if they disagree with the table opposite which classifies papers according to **political opinions.** This is very controversial. Have a look at a copy of *The Times* and see if you think it is really independent and unbiased.

Are there any good reasons for believing that we have had more Conservative than Labour governments in the last seventy years because we have more Conservative papers? Why do fewer papers support Labour? In what ways can a paper do more harm than good to the political party it supports? The total sale of the nine morning dailies averages about 2 million copies. The table below gives circulation figures for our main national newspapers.

*National Newspapers*

| | Circulation Jan.–June 1977 (av.) |
|---|---|
| NATIONAL MORNINGS | |
| *Daily Express* | 2,432,075 |
| *Daily Mail* | 1,829,380 |
| *Daily Mirror* | 3,844,592 |
| *Morning Star* | 38,533 |
| *The Sun* (1969) | 3,722,731 |
| *The Daily Telegraph* | 1,310,011 |
| *Financial Times* | 176,683 |
| *The Guardian* | 291,609 |
| *The Times* | 306,115 |
| NATIONAL SUNDAYS | |
| *News of the World* | 4,934,284 |
| *The Sunday People* | 3,943,417 |
| *Sunday Express* | 3,287,087 |
| *Sunday Mirror* | 3,967,947 |
| *The Observer* | 656,242 |
| *Sunday Telegraph* | 796,407 |
| *The Sunday Times* | 1,373,534 |

Source: Britain 1978: An official handbook

## TOPIC 7.3 INFLUENCE OF THE PRESS

Throughout this book we have learnt about things which influence us – affect our experiences and mould our characters. Newspapers that are read by millions must exert a very great influence. We shall consider ten ways in which the press (newspapers, journals, magazines, etc.) influences the masses. Don't forget that the masses include you and me.

| *Conservative* | *Labour* | *Liberal* | *Communist* | *Independent* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Daily Express*<br>*Daily Mail*<br>*Financial Times*<br>*News of the World*<br>*Sunday Express*<br>*Daily Telegraph*<br>*Sunday Telegraph* | *Daily Mirror*<br>*Sunday Mirror*<br>*Sun*<br>*Sunday People* | *Guardian* | *Morning Star* | *Observer*<br>*The Times* |

**Joseph attacks ‘bully boys of the left’**

**MIDDLE CLASS ATTACKED AS LIBERAL URGES ‘REMOVE BARRIERS’**

**Thatcher dubbed as goddess of the middle class warrior**

1. *Headlines*. Look at these headlines. Which one do you think is the most sensational? Do any of them show bias or prejudice? Are there any which are ambiguous, i.e. have a double meaning?

2. *Layout*. Some popular papers have very large headlines but very few facts. The squat tabloid layout of the *Daily Mirror*, the *Daily Mail* and the *Sun* does not leave much space for words; they have huge headlines and photographs. These newspapers exert their influence by setting things out sensationally in bold print. How far is it true to say there are newspapers which cater for those

who can read and think;
who can read but *not* think;
who *don’t want* to read or think?

3. *Illustrations*. We saw that communication is possible without words at all. Newspapers can influence their readers by vivid photographs, humorous cartoons and other illustrations.

4. *Selection of material.* Newspapers have far more material submitted to them than they can possibly print. Three British press agencies collect news and sell it to newspapers, Reuters Ltd, the Exchange Telegraph Co. Ltd, and the Press Association Ltd. About 2 million words of general news, sports and other reports are received in London every day over a world network of cable and radio circuits. A newspaper also has its own **correspondents** and journalists plus freelance agencies which sell news. Sub-editors sift news for national dailies. We can only read what is selected for us, and we never see items which papers disregard and do not print.

5. *Readers' letters.* It is very easy for the editor to select letters supporting a view which is in line with the policy of the paper. A similar purpose can be achieved by printing a letter which expresses stupid arguments for the other side. Readers may write long letters which have to be abridged. If a vital paragraph is omitted in editing, the sense of the message is altered. The editor's word is final. The message becomes his rather than that of the letter writer. The editor has control over the message, because he has control over the medium.

6. *Editorials.* Most papers have an **editorial**, or column called a leader because it is written by a **leader writer**. It provides an opportunity to state a point of view in accord with the policy of the paper and the **newspaper proprietor** or owners. We pride ourselves on having a **free press** in Britain. It is free from government control, unlike the Soviet papers, *Pravda* and *Isvestia*. Any Briton is free to start a newspaper and convey any message so long as it is legal. But it costs a lot of money to run a paper; the privilege of a free press may well be the privilege of rich men to influence mass opinion. The history of newspapers is full of accounts of powerful men – Northcliffe, Beaverbrook, Kemsley, King, Thomson, Murdoch. In Lord Williams's *Dangerous Estate* you can read about some of the people who have influenced the role of newspapers.

7. *Comments.*

> 'News is sacred: comment is free'
> (C. P. Scott, ex-editor of *The Guardian*)

Newspapers mix **comment** with news. A straightforward account could be written about Mrs Thatcher succeeding to the Conservative Party leadership in 1975, but it would be easy to intermingle these simple facts with

(a) favourable comments about her businesslike approach and her tenacity of purpose

*or*

(b) adverse comments referring to an apparently pompous attitude or her 'posh' voice.

In a well-written piece it is almost impossible for all except the most discerning reader to pick out biased comments from straightforward facts.

8. *Exaggerations.* The popular papers include a great many **human interest stories**. These are spicy stories about unusual happenings. It is easy to find a story about 'the headmaster's son who went wrong'. Many other fathers have sons who kick over the traces, but sub-editors select stories for **sensationalism** and a touch of scandal. Have you ever listened to two or three people giving an account of a road accident? The MP John Stonehouse who was reported drowned off the coast of the United States and later turned up in Australia declared that he could not expect a fair trial because of the publicity he had been given in British newspapers.

9. *Campaigns.* A newspaper can act as a pressure group. *The Sunday Times* conducted a long and successful **campaign** on behalf of thalidomide children. Most newspapers took a distinctive line before the EEC referendum in 1975.

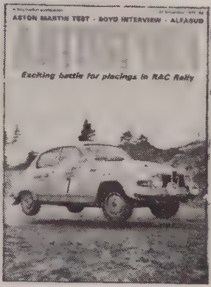
10. *Personal attacks.* Newspapers may make personal attacks upon a prominent figure in an attempt to rouse public opinion against him. Anthony Wedgwood Benn has been subjected to intensive press criticism in recent years.

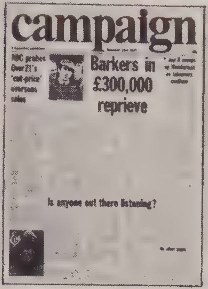
The **Press Council** provides the greatest safeguard against abuse by newspapers. Since 1953 it has supervised professional standards and investigated many complaints against newspapers.

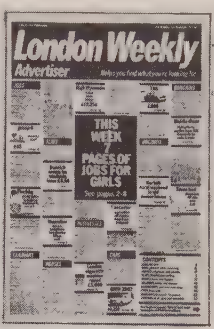
## TOPIC 7.4 MAGAZINES

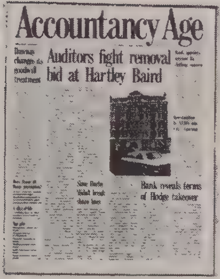
TEN SPECIALISED PERIODICALS

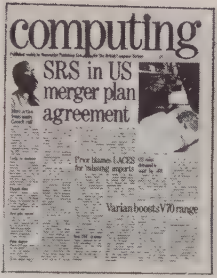
| | |
|---|---|
| Angling | *Anglers' Mail* |
| Birds | *Bird Life* |
| Coins | *Coins* |
| Music | *Music and Musicians* |
| Motoring | *Motor Sport* |
| Radio | *Practical Wireless* |
| Soccer | *Football Pictorial* |
| Sport | *Sportsworld* |
| Stamps | *Gibbons Stamp Monthly* |
| Trains | *Trains Illustrated* |

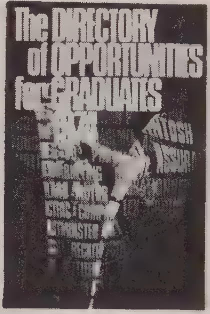

ASTON MARTIN TEST · BOYD INTERVIEW · ALFASUD
Exciting battle for placings in RAC Rally

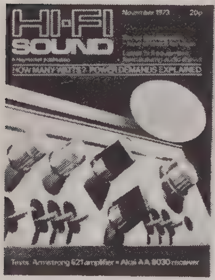

campaign
Barkers in £300,000 reprieve
Is anyone out there listening?

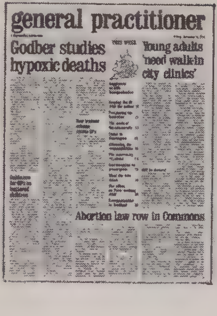

London Weekly Advertiser
THIS WEEK 7 PAGES OF JOBS FOR GIRLS
See pages 2-8


Accountancy Age
Auditors fight removal bid at Hartley Baird
Bank reveals terms of Hodge takeover


computing
SRS in US merger plan agreement
Varian boosts V70 range


The DIRECTORY of OPPORTUNITIES for GRADUATES


HI-FI SOUND
November 1973
20p
HOW MANY WATTS? POWER DEMANDS EXPLAINED
Tests: Armstrong 621 amplifier • Akai AA 8030 receiver


general practitioner
Godber studies hypoxic deaths
Young adults 'need walk-in city clinics'
Abortion law row in Commons

mims magazine

Do you take any regular magazines? The girls have a wide choice from such popular magazines as *Fabulous, Favourite Story, Hers, Jackie, Love Affair, Loving, Mates, Mirabelle, Petticoat Pink,* while the tomboys may prefer soccer magazines usually bought for boys – *Shoot and Goal, Football Monthly, Scorcher and Score,* or *Striker*. Or are you a pop fan and more interested in *Melody Maker, Disc* or *Music Star*? Perhaps you have one specific interest and take a periodical like *Bike*. There are specialised magazines to cater for almost every interest.

What would you expect to find in a good teenage magazine? Arrange these features in the order of your choice. Your order of preference will give you an idea of the items which are likely to influence you most. We ought to be aware of things which are likely to play a part in moulding our personalities.

CONTENTS OF A TEENAGE MAGAZINE

stories
serials
fashion
features
competitions
quizzes
horoscope
poems
advertisements
humorous cartoons
word games
puzzles
candid quizzes
health hints
beauty hints
pets
mysteries
career guidance
'help' letters
joke page
real-life stories
picture serials
pop pin-ups
gossip columns
music
romances
adventure stories
plays
recipes
chat columns
pen pals
reviews

## TOPIC 7.5 TELEVISION AND RADIO

The two major bodies in charge of **broadcasting** in Britain are the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC), and the Independent Broadcasting Authority (IBA).

The BBC operates two national television services, four national radio services and over twenty local radio stations. It also broadcasts to many foreign countries. The BBC started a regular television service in 1936 and by 1967 provided the British people with the first European colour service through the medium of BBC 1. BBC 2 began in 1964 and went over to colour in 1967.

BBC television and radio programmes cater for all tastes.

In the 1960s the activity of 'pirate' radio stations, ships such as *Radio Caroline* and *Radio London*, indicated a big demand, especially from young people, for continuous pop music. The result was the birth of Radio 1 in 1967. The 'pirates' proved that many firms were willing to spend large sums on advertising through the medium of commercial radio. This resulted in the Sound Broadcasting Act of 1972 which allowed for sixty independent radio stations.

Television has not killed radio, but nowadays people tend to listen to specialised programmes. They settle down for an evening's television but the radio is switched on for 'The Archers' or 'Woman's Hour' or 'Any Questions'. Or do you listen to a barrage of pop music? Let's face it, some young people leave the transistor on to provide a background of non-stop pop.

Is it the responsibility of the BBC to raise people's standards or just to provide them with what they want? Should broadcasting authorities try to introduce people to ballet, classical music, modern art and other minority tastes? Lord Reith, the first Director-General of the BBC, believed it was his task to raise people's standards and introduce them to new cultural activities so that their range of pleasures was widened. Perhaps the best thing is a compromise. If radio and television pandered to mass opinion all the time there would be no coverage of minority interests. The BBC's revenue comes from those who pay licence fees, and that includes all sorts of people.

The Independent Broadcasting Authority (IBA) was known as the Independent Television Authority until 1972 when its responsibilities were extended to include sound broadcasting. The main function of the IBA is 'to provide public television services of information, education and entertainment'.

The IBA owns the transmitting stations, and is responsible for what is shown on ITV, but the programmes are produced by fifteen ITV programme companies who make annual rental payments to the IBA. The companies charge firms who advertise their products on television. Those who buy goods and services advertised in this way pay indirectly for both advertisements and the programmes; perhaps it is less painful than paying licence fees. Do you think advertisements distract from programmes or do you like advertising jingles? No doubt it depends on the programme being watched. It's all a question of taste.

The weekly programme output of ITV has increased annually until by 1973 it amounted to over 100 hours a week.

The make-up of **audience profiles** is influenced largely by (a) sex, (b) social class and (c) age.

| *Medium* | *Type of programme* | *Approximate hours per day* |
|---|---|---|
| *Television* | | |
| BBC 1 | **Majority interests:**<br>light entertainment, sport, general interest, children's programmes, outside broadcasts | 10 |
| BBC 2 | **Minority interests:**<br>documentaries, serious drama, music | 6 |
| *Radio* | | |
| Radio 1 | pop music | 12 |
| Radio 2 | light music and sport | 20 |
| Radio 3 | classical music, intellectual, artistic material | 17 |
| Radio 4 | news, drama, talks, panel games | 17 |

How many hours a week do you spend watching television? Series such as 'Coronation Street' and 'Crossroads' are sometimes called **soap operas**. What would you say to someone who said that watching such programmes is a time-wasting pursuit?

Many television programmes serve a social function. Television has drawn attention to social evils by screening compassionate **documentaries.** 'Cathy Come Home' drew attention to the plight of the homeless while the dangers of alcoholism were brought home by 'Edna the Inebriate Woman'. 'Leeds United' gave the background to a strike in the clothing industry. What social documentaries and visual case studies have you seen on television in recent months?

In recent years the number of people watching colour television has increased. By 1975 about 17 million households had sets, including about 7 million with colour sets.

### TOPIC 7.6 THE CINEMA

Although attendances have declined rapidly since

The most successful series

'I said, thanks for a lovely evening, we'd better be going.'

'This is one of the best Easterns I've read.'

the heyday of the between-the-wars Hollywood movie, young people are still greatly attracted to the cinema. Television is a godsend to old people and to young marrieds, who find it difficult to get baby-sitters and cannot afford regular cinema visits on top of a heavy mortgage, but the cinema provides a meeting-place for young people. In most towns it is one of the main places for teenage entertainment.

Film making has become increasingly costly, and cinema seats consequently more expensive, so that in recent years the number of admissions has more than halved, from about 5 million annually in 1968 to about 2$\frac{1}{4}$ million in 1975.

Towns that had between twelve and twenty cinemas in 1950 often had about 6 by 1975. Many of the cinemas have become bingo halls or warehouses.

Cinemas have fought back by

1. providing 'multi-cinemas', with three or four films being shown in small cinemas
2. concentrating upon expensive spectaculars
3. making use of larger screens.

As it dates back to the late nineteenth century, the film is one of the oldest forms of mass media, and thousands of films are available for hire from film libraries. Many documentaries have great educational influences but some of the films which appeal most to the masses are those about

(a) gangsters
(b) horror stories
(c) romance
(d) the wild west
(e) war.

Many of these films present unreal situations. Westerns portray familiar themes of rustling and gambling culminating in the crunch when the goodie is faster on the draw than the baddie. Familiarity breeds contempt and an interesting breakaway from typical sequences has been the **real-life films** where the director has turned his back on the artificiality of American war heroes and the tinselled lives of romantic heroines to concentrate upon living drama. Many of these films have centred on a working-class background. Perhaps you have seen some of them on television.

Sociologists are naturally interested in whether action portrayed on the screen affects real-life behaviour. We saw in Unit 1 that it is often impossible to say why we behave as we do. If you watch Kung Fu films, are you likely to be a more violent person? *The Clockwork Orange* was followed by more cases of mugging, but there is little real evidence that many people commit evil actions merely because they saw something similar on the screen. Indeed a film may have a **cathartic effect**: you may get some hate out of your system by watching others perform violent acts on the screen. We don't all turn into vampires because we watch Count Dracula!

### TOPIC 7.7 ADVERTISING

The purpose of advertising is to influence the behaviour of the masses to serve the ends of the advertisers. Modern **persuaders** want us to support their causes, or buy their products, or they want to combat the advertising of competititors. All the mass media can be used: national and provincial newspapers; magazines, journals and periodicals; cinema, radio and television. To these we can add hoardings, posters, sandwich men, sky-writing, handbills, pamphlets, leaflets, vouchers, etc. Can you think of others?

The persuaders will appeal to those basic emotions and instincts which motivate each one of us. Throughout our human life-span these things drive us on with greater or lesser effect, depending on age, background, education, health, intellect, sex and social class.

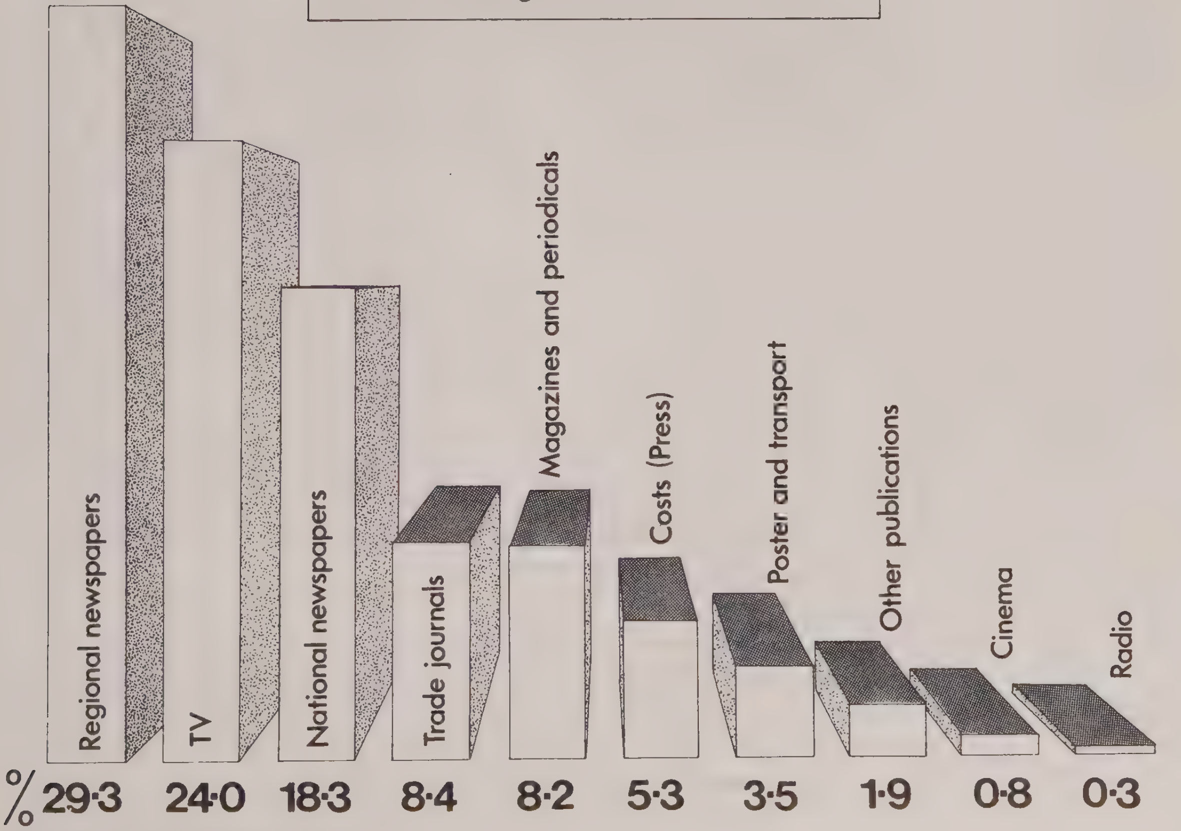
Advertisers use the mass media to great effect for good or for ill. There are both advantages and disadvantages in advertising.

HUMAN ATTRIBUTES TO WHICH THE PERSUADERS APPEAL

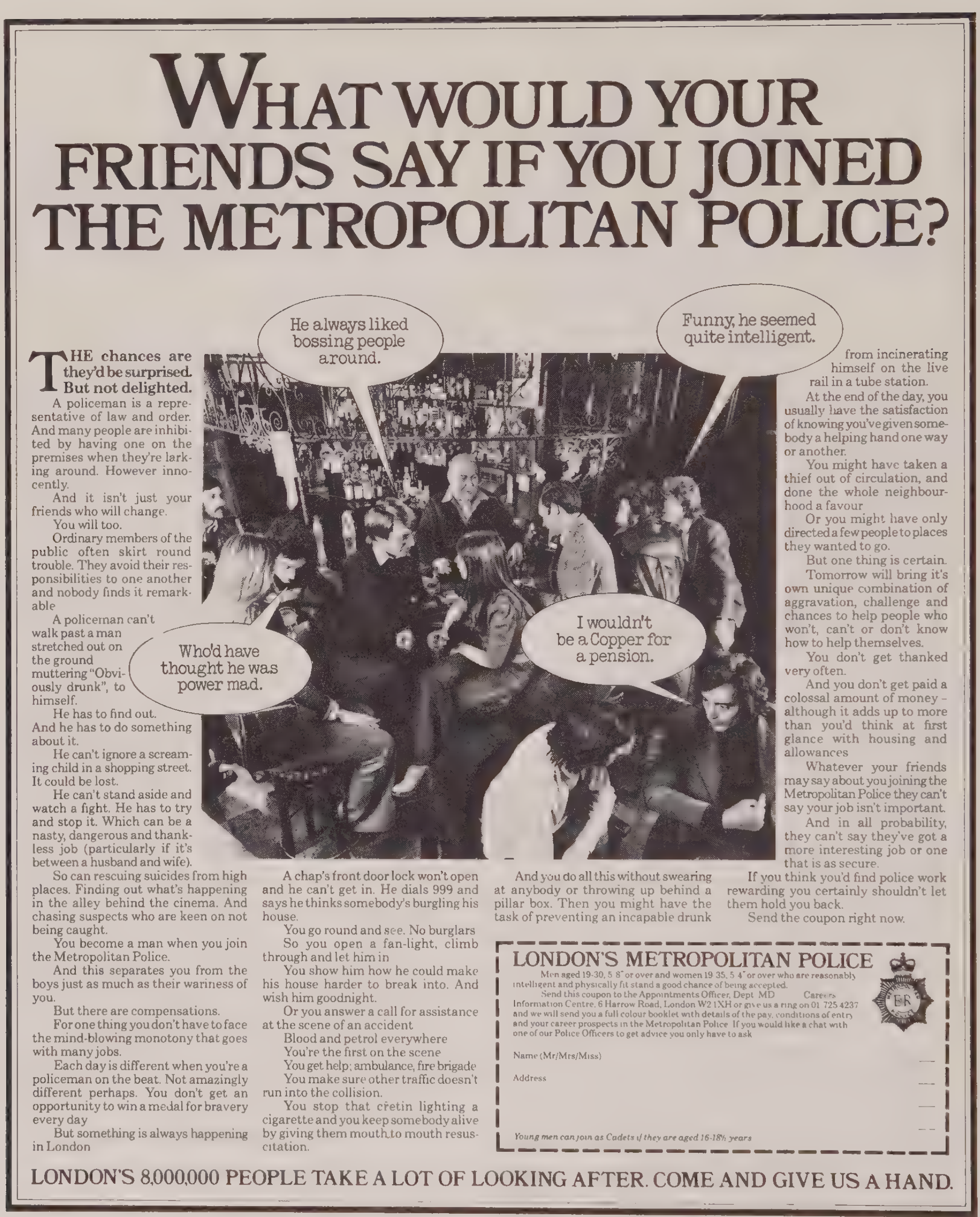
| *Sense of adventure* | *Materialistic motives* | *Sex instinct* |
|---|---|---|
| ambition<br>danger<br>power<br>speed | acquisition<br>comfort<br>snobbery<br>status | femininity<br>glamour<br>manliness<br>maternity |

SOME OF THE METHODS OF THE PERSUADERS

Before-and-after approach
Colourful appeal
Distinctive brand name
Doubt if you can afford it!
Everybody's buying it
Humorous cartoons or verses
Ostentation – snob appeal
Packaging and wrapping
Recommendation by a famous person
Repetition, e.g. jingles
Upper-middle-class way of life
Pretending to 'knock the product'
You can't manage without it!



How the persuaders spend their money


He always liked bossing people around.
Funny, he seemed quite intelligent.
Who'd have thought he was power mad.
I wouldn't be a Copper for a pension.

# WHAT WOULD YOUR FRIENDS SAY IF YOU JOINED THE METROPOLITAN POLICE?

**THE chances are they'd be surprised. But not delighted.**

A policeman is a representative of law and order. And many people are inhibited by having one on the premises when they're larking around. However innocently.

And it isn't just your friends who will change.

You will too.

Ordinary members of the public often skirt round trouble. They avoid their responsibilities to one another and nobody finds it remarkable

A policeman can't walk past a man stretched out on the ground muttering "Obviously drunk", to himself.

He has to find out. And he has to do something about it.

He can't ignore a screaming child in a shopping street. It could be lost.

He can't stand aside and watch a fight. He has to try and stop it. Which can be a nasty, dangerous and thankless job (particularly if it's between a husband and wife).

So can rescuing suicides from high places. Finding out what's happening in the alley behind the cinema. And chasing suspects who are keen on not being caught.

You become a man when you join the Metropolitan Police.

And this separates you from the boys just as much as their wariness of you.

But there are compensations.

For one thing you don't have to face the mind-blowing monotony that goes with many jobs.

Each day is different when you're a policeman on the beat. Not amazingly different perhaps. You don't get an opportunity to win a medal for bravery every day

But something is always happening in London

A chap's front door lock won't open and he can't get in. He dials 999 and says he thinks somebody's burgling his house.

You go round and see. No burglars

So you open a fan-light, climb through and let him in

You show him how he could make his house harder to break into. And wish him goodnight.

Or you answer a call for assistance at the scene of an accident

Blood and petrol everywhere

You're the first on the scene

You get help; ambulance, fire brigade

You make sure other traffic doesn't run into the collision.

You stop that cretin lighting a cigarette and you keep somebody alive by giving them mouth to mouth resuscitation.

And you do all this without swearing at anybody or throwing up behind a pillar box. Then you might have the task of preventing an incapable drunk from incinerating himself on the live rail in a tube station.

At the end of the day, you usually have the satisfaction of knowing you've given somebody a helping hand one way or another.

You might have taken a thief out of circulation, and done the whole neighbourhood a favour

Or you might have only directed a few people to places they wanted to go.

But one thing is certain.

Tomorrow will bring it's own unique combination of aggravation, challenge and chances to help people who won't, can't or don't know how to help themselves.

You don't get thanked very often.

And you don't get paid a colossal amount of money – although it adds up to more than you'd think at first glance with housing and allowances

Whatever your friends may say about you joining the Metropolitan Police they can't say your job isn't important.

And in all probability, they can't say they've got a more interesting job or one that is as secure.

If you think you'd find police work rewarding you certainly shouldn't let them hold you back.

Send the coupon right now.

## LONDON'S METROPOLITAN POLICE

Men aged 19-30, 5 8" or over and women 19-35, 5 4" or over who are reasonably intelligent and physically fit stand a good chance of being accepted.

Send this coupon to the Appointments Officer, Dept MD Careers Information Centre, 6 Harrow Road, London W2 1XH or give us a ring on 01 725 4237 and we will send you a full colour booklet with details of the pay, conditions of entry and your career prospects in the Metropolitan Police If you would like a chat with one of our Police Officers to get advice you only have to ask

Name (Mr/Mrs/Miss)

Address

*Young men can join as Cadets if they are aged 16-18½ years*

LONDON'S 8,000,000 PEOPLE TAKE A LOT OF LOOKING AFTER. COME AND GIVE US A HAND.

A clever advertisement that humorously 'knocks' the would-be policeman.

# Unit 8 *EDUCATION*

Informal education: leading railwayman Mohammed Siddique is given an English lesson by his daughter at his Acton home

### TOPIC 8.1 WHO ARE THE EDUCATORS?

The process of education goes on throughout the life-cycle. We never stop learning; consequently education does not stop either. All those who train and instruct others are **educators**.

Your first educator was your mother, to be followed by the rest of your family, relations and friends. This was **informal education**: there were no organised lessons. Gradually and often unknowingly you learnt from others by copying, practising, failing sometimes but eventually succeeding. Pleased with your achievement you did it again and again.

Informally, we gain knowledge, acquire skills and learn the values of the community. This is socialisation.

At about the age of five the majority of children in Britain go to school and start their **formal education**. This takes place in schools and similar institutions. Formal education has been available for everybody in Britain for only just over a century. Until Forster's Education Act of 1870 there was no **compulsory education** and even the school boards were unable to get all children to school. An Act of 1876 compelled parents to see that their children received **elementary education** in basic subjects such as the 3 Rs (reading, writing and arithmetic).

In pre-industrial societies, boys were educated in many informal ways:

1. Their fathers taught them their trades or how to hunt.
2. The priests taught them about religion and how to conduct themselves.
3. The warriors taught them how to fight in battle.

Girls had a more specialised role than that fulfilled by females today. The word 'unisex' had not been invented. A girl's mother taught her to perform domestic duties and to look after younger children.

There are many ways in which we are informally educated today.

## TOPIC 8.2 WHY BE EDUCATED?

Apart from the obvious benefits of education in promoting the fullest development of each individual, the many functions of education help people to adjust to community life.

1. **Cultural function**. Sociologists apply the term culture to standards of conduct and values accepted by a particular society. Britons accept the British way of life. Each nation passes on its distinctive culture – its ethical codes, customs, festivals and outlook.

2. **Economic function**. A modern industrial society must have educated people who can read, write, calculate, interpret diagrams, and transmit and understand instructions. Schools teach basic skills. Do you think that too little attention is paid to the 3 Rs today? Job skills are taught at the place of work or at institutions of further education.

3. **Continuity function**. People are educated according to existing patterns of life. Although changes must take place if society is not to decay and die, education has a stabilising effect. Parents teach children what their parents taught them. Has your mother ever said, 'Well, my mother taught me . . .'? Or has your father ever said, 'My father used to say . . .'? Education tends to be traditional, and this applies especially to schools. They are freer places than in the past, but the organisation of assemblies, classes, teaching groups and examinations follows similar patterns to past practices. Most of us rebel at times against formal education, but we would learn very little unless there was organisation.

4. **Law and order function**. Even a family cannot exist without law and order. A baby has to learn that he is not expected to throw his food over the rest of the family. The laws are unwritten but still valid. Schools continue the process by impressing on pupils that laws and orders must be observed.

SOME METHODS OF INFORMAL EDUCATION

| *Informal educator* | *Material taught* |
|---|---|
| Parents | Language, counting, reading, conduct, socialisation |
| Brothers and sisters | Living with others, sharing, compromising |
| Games | A boy is a man in the making: our games fit us for a man's (or woman's) role |
| Close friends | Loyalty, companionship, forgiveness |
| Baby-minding | Looking after children, responsibility, patience |
| Mass media | Information, discrimination |
| Youth activities | Acceptance of leadership, co-operation, initiative |
| Community service | Caring for others, practical work, kindness |

We saw in Unit 2 that an individual's freedom is limited by his environment. The chief authority at school is the head teacher, and the rest of the staff support him in maintaining sufficient law and order for education to take place.

5. **Political function**. If Britain is to remain a democracy schools must teach pupils to play an active part in politics. Have you ever had a mock election at your school, or do you elect form representatives or a School Council? We want people to stand for Parliament or for the local council. People should vote at election time and play an active part between elections.

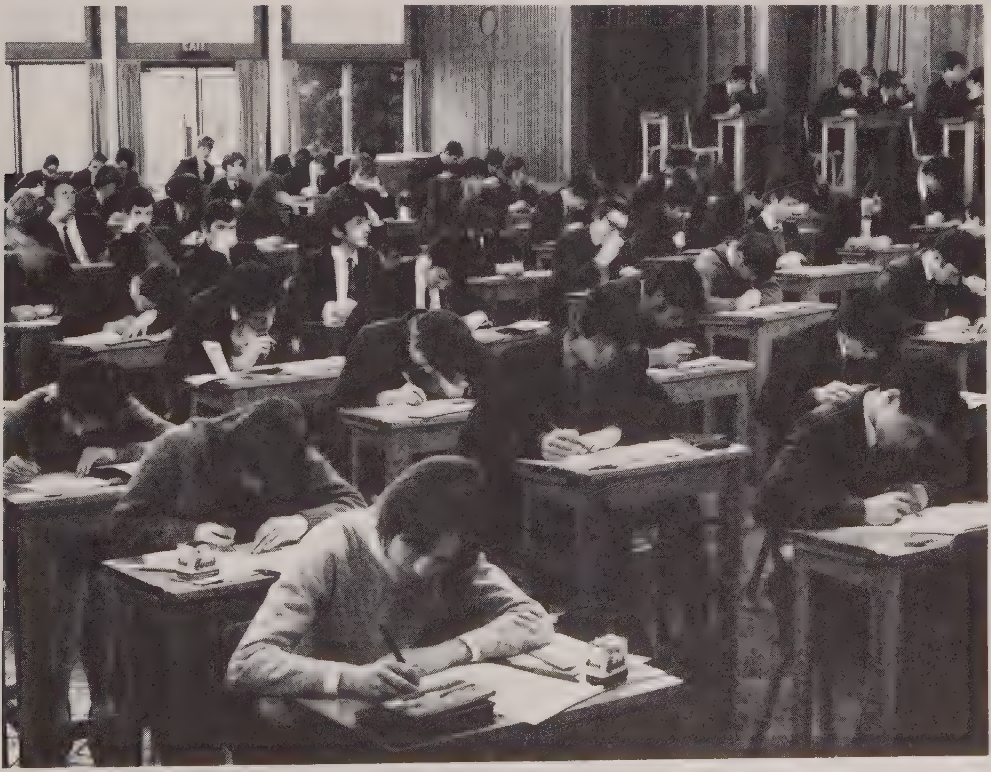
### TOPIC 8.3 THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN BRITAIN

The **educational system** is illustrated on page 104. You are at the half-way house, having worked through the pre-school and primary stages to reach the secondary stage. Your informal education will go on as long as you go on! According to the 1975 White Paper on public expenditure nearly £5,000 million a year will be spent on education by 1978–9. The likely number of pupils at each stage until 1978–9 is shown in the table.

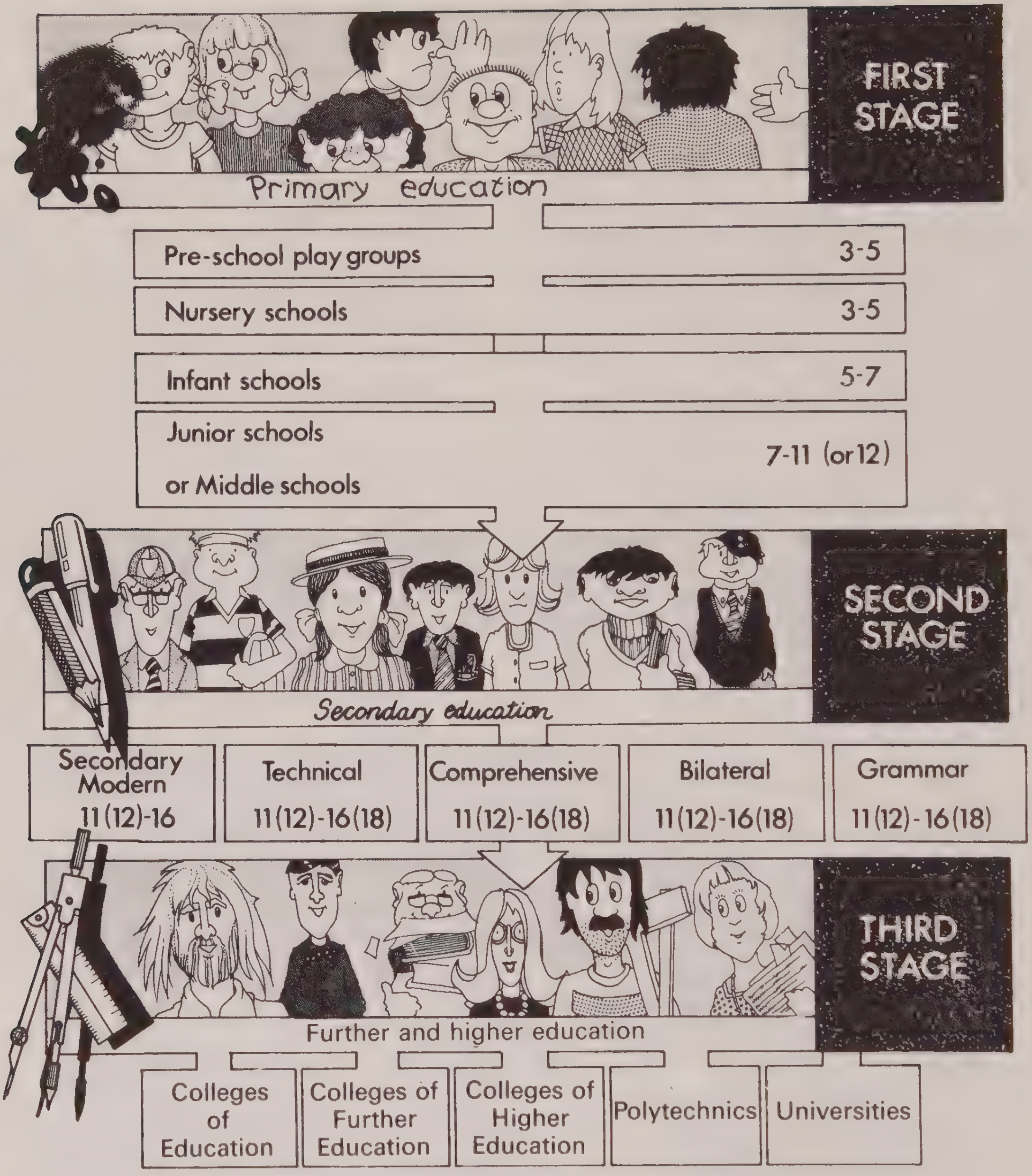
PROJECTED NUMBER OF PUPILS AND STUDENTS (*in thousands*)

| | *1976–7* | *1978–9* |
|---|---|---|
| Under 5s | 496 | 528 |
| Primary pupils | 5,268 | 4,964 |
| Secondary pupils under 16 | 3,822 | 3,853 |
| Secondary pupils over 16 | 611 | 667 |
| Non-advanced further education | 718 | 765 |
| Higher education | 561 | 603 |

The provision of far more **nursery schools** was one of the main policies of a ten-year programme (*Education: A Framework for Expansion*) announced by the Government in 1972. The plan promised nursery education by 1983 to all 2–5-year-olds whose parents wanted it for them, but several local authorities have not taken up their allocation of funds for nursery buildings. Some areas are very badly served.



Education is often highly organised


FIRST STAGE
Primary education
Pre-school play groups 3-5
Nursery schools 3-5
Infant schools 5-7
Junior schools or Middle schools 7-11 (or 12)
SECOND STAGE
Secondary education
Secondary Modern 11(12)-16
Technical 11(12)-16(18)
Comprehensive 11(12)-16(18)
Bilateral 11(12)-16(18)
Grammar 11(12)-16(18)
THIRD STAGE
Further and higher education
Colleges of Education
Colleges of Further Education
Colleges of Higher Education
Polytechnics
Universities

The structure of education in England and Wales

TOPIC 8.4 NURSERY EDUCATION

**Nursery education** is supplied by

1. pre-school play groups
2. free nursery schools run by local education authorities (LEAs)
3. nursery schools where parents pay.

Do you think very young children are better off being formally educated in organised nurseries or at home with their mother? Recall our investigation into environment in Unit 1 and social classes in Unit 2. An under-five-year-old who is lucky enough to have an attentive, sensible, well-educated mother and instructive toys might be better off at

Nursery school children like to make music

home, especially if there were other youngsters of his own age for him to play with. A major review of the pre-school scene in 1975 warned that the value of nursery education should not be overstated.

The belief that the benefits of nursery education are exaggerated is supported by the findings of the National Foundation for Educational Research and the Educational Priority Area project. Why, then, has there been so much fuss about supplying more nursery places? The 1967 Plowden Report and the 1972 Halsey Educational Priority Report recommended more nursery schools. We have seen that the first five years are all-important and that many children suffer from early deprivation. It would seem that nurseries must be beneficial.

Here is an important lesson for us. As social scientists we must accept the findings of research even if it does not conform with what we expected. The 1975 Report concluded that attendance at nursery schools had no significant effect on primary school attainment. By the end of the first term at primary school those who had not attended nurseries had caught up with ex-nursery pupils and adjusted to formal education. The short-term gains from nursery education were wiped out.

So are people who campaign for an earlier start to formal education on the wrong lines? Don't forget this book deliberately sets out to be controversial. You must learn to think things out for yourself.

BENEFITS CLAIMED FOR NURSERY EDUCATION

1. Makes up for deprivation in children from a poor environment
2. Gives earlier contact with others from same peer group
3. Picks out those who require early treatment because they are handicapped physically, mentally or psychologically
4. Makes young children realise the need for more co-operation and less selfishness
5. Provides socialisation opportunities not found in the home

Modern educational methods encourage enthusiasm and initiative

Have you ever been to a play group? Are the methods used more informal or formal? Mothers help in the running of play groups but the National Children's Bureau has pointed out that the needs of deprived children are inadequately met if mothers are not suitable to help.

Do you know any children who are left with a child-minder because there is no provision for nursery education? As more mothers go out to work, provision has to be made for their children to be looked after. Do you think these children are better off with a child-minder, in a play group or in a nursery school?

### TOPIC 8.5 PRIMARY EDUCATION

**Primary education** may be divided into

1. *Infant schools* from 5 to 7 years
2. *Junior schools* from 7 to 11 (or 12) years.

The 1944 Act laid down that transfer to secondary education should take place at the age of 11, but an increasing number of LEAs are establishing

1. *First schools* for pupils aged about 5 to 8
2. *Middle schools* for pupils aged 9 to 12.

The extension of primary education to the age of 12, or even 13 in some areas, has several advantages:

1. Interesting, individualistic and self-expression work can be continued before being replaced by more formalised secondary education.
2. There may be a carry-over of the enthusiasm usually found in primary education.
3. It allows an extra year at the primary stage without detracting from the secondary stage. This is possible because ROSLA (raising of the school leaving age) has extended the secondary stage.
4. Children may benefit from **neighbourhood schools** which serve a particular catchment area.
5. Full benefit can be taken of the abolition of the 11 + examination which inhibited junior schools previously.

There have been complaints in recent years about the standards of reading and writing. In 1975 the Bullock Report stated that research evidence points to a decline in the standard of 7–11-year-olds in the last ten years.

SOME RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE BULLOCK REPORT

1. Close checks on reading standards
2. Improved methods of testing and recording
3. National centre for language in education
4. Detailed reading policy in every school
5. Screening to pick out backward readers
6. Extra help for slow readers
7. Local authority clinics to assist schools to teach reading
8. Parents' evenings to gain their co-operation in English teaching
9. Well-stocked libraries
10. Improved teacher-training to ensure that all teachers know how to teach the English language

The Report contained 333 recommendations in 609 pages. One member of the Bullock Committee thought standards are far worse than the Report suggested: Mr Stuart Froome found a student teacher had written on the blackboard: 'The bigest animals where dinnosaurs.' How many mistakes had the teacher made? It is no wonder that the Bullock Report recommended that all teachers should be competent at English. Perhaps there should be a large notice hanging behind each teacher: 'The teacher is not always right.' The best type of criticism is self-criticism. Do you read all your work through? If you find mistakes in this book, write to the author!

Are modern standards low? Is there any truth in the following statements? Children at infant and junior school

1. spend too much time playing
2. have insufficient discipline
3. ought to have homework
4. spend too long on subsidiary topics or projects
5. are not sufficiently subjected to parental pressure
6. watch too many visual programmes of entertainment rather than educational value
7. are tested irregularly and not compelled to learn
8. are no longer expected to reach any standard (e.g. the 11+ examination)

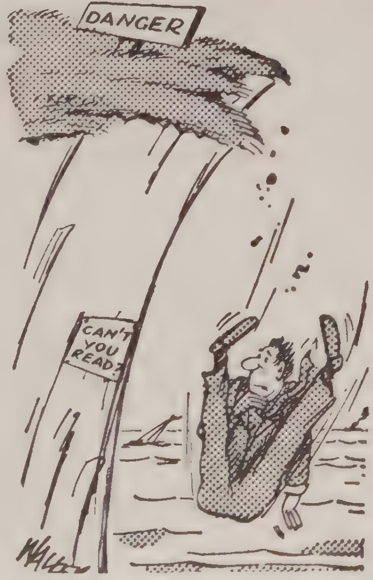
# The right to read is basic

A child who leaves school unable to read has been deprived of a tool of life. Illiteracy, as the House of Lords agreed last night, is an affront to the educational system and ought to be wiped

# Crisis over children who can't read at 11

**ONE in five English children in some slum area junior schools cannot read or write — and illiteracy among immigrant pupils is far worse, says a Government-sponsored report out today.**

The disturbing figures show that in Birmingham 60 per cent. of the Asian children in such schools cannot read English at 11.



9. fall victims to untried modern methods and experiments
10. are often taught by teachers without degrees.

You have probably rejected the last point. There are more important qualities necessary for teaching infants and juniors than high academic qualifications. What about patience, enthusiasm, sympathy and an appreciation of the difficulties of younger children?

It is right that junior schools should be places of keen experimentation. Mankind progresses through *change*. If one experiment fails, another should be tried.

An example of a brave experiment was the teaching of a second language to primary school children from 1964 to 1974. It seemed a good idea. Many English people are poor linguists. However, after a ten-year experiment the National Foundation for Educational Research reported in December 1974 that it seemed a waste of time to teach French to 8–11-year-olds. The NFER studied 18,000 children who had been taught French; it was found that when they arrived at secondary school half of them had had enough and were hostile towards learning any more of the language. Can you suggest any reasons why this might have been the fault of

(a) the teachers
(b) the methods
(c) the pupils?

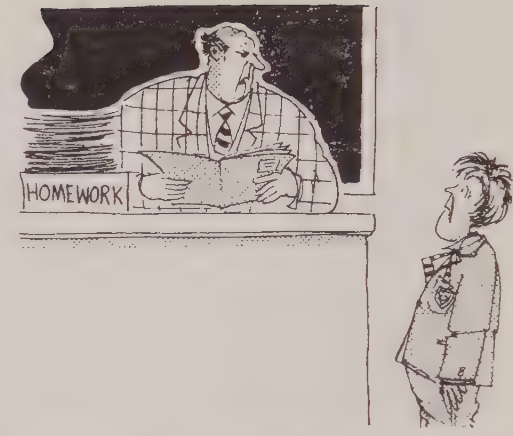
One of the greatest changes has been the abolition of the 11 + examination. Many educationalists believed that if schools were freed from this examination the 'C' stream would no longer be sent to dig the school garden while the 'A' stream was processed to gain 11 + passes by which the school was judged! Comprehensive schooling has meant the end of the 11 +, but there is a danger that standards in schools may fall. What ways can you suggest of maintaining high standards without an examination?

## TOPIC 8.6 SECONDARY EDUCATION

You are now in the secondary sector of education. Of the 4½ million secondary pupils nearly 4 million are under 16. The chances are that you are at a comprehensive school.

The 1944 Education Act outlined three main types of secondary school:

1. modern
2. technical
3. grammar.



'Tell your father his algebra is improving, but he really must do something about his trigonometry.'

In the last ten years these have largely been replaced by **comprehensive schools**. Councils who had not adopted the comprehensive system by 1974 were instructed to do so. Many advocates of comprehensives think that the Government ought to have made comprehensives compulsory by law. In 1965 the Department of Education issued Circular 10 calling for councils to submit plans for comprehensive education.

The Government announced its intention of withdrawing the direct grant to independent schools by 1976; fees are likely to rise steeply in private grammar schools so that about 95 per cent of pupils in the secondary age group will be in comprehensives by 1980.

It is difficult to put personal feelings on one side, especially if you are at a comprehensive, modern or grammar school, but we must try to look at the matter impartially.

You may think that some of these are self-cancelling arguments. If so, it proves a point. There are no simple 'yes' or 'no' answers. Comprehensives provide many advantages but it would be wrong to think the perfect solution has been reached in the structure of secondary education. The wheel often turns full circle. Perhaps the next generation will reject large schools and return to a belief in the idea that 'small is beautiful'.

The modern trend in secondary education is away from **streaming** into classes where those of similar ability are taught together. The 1944 Act replaced the 3 Rs by the 3 As, i.e. education according to

(a) age
(b) ability
(c) aptitude.

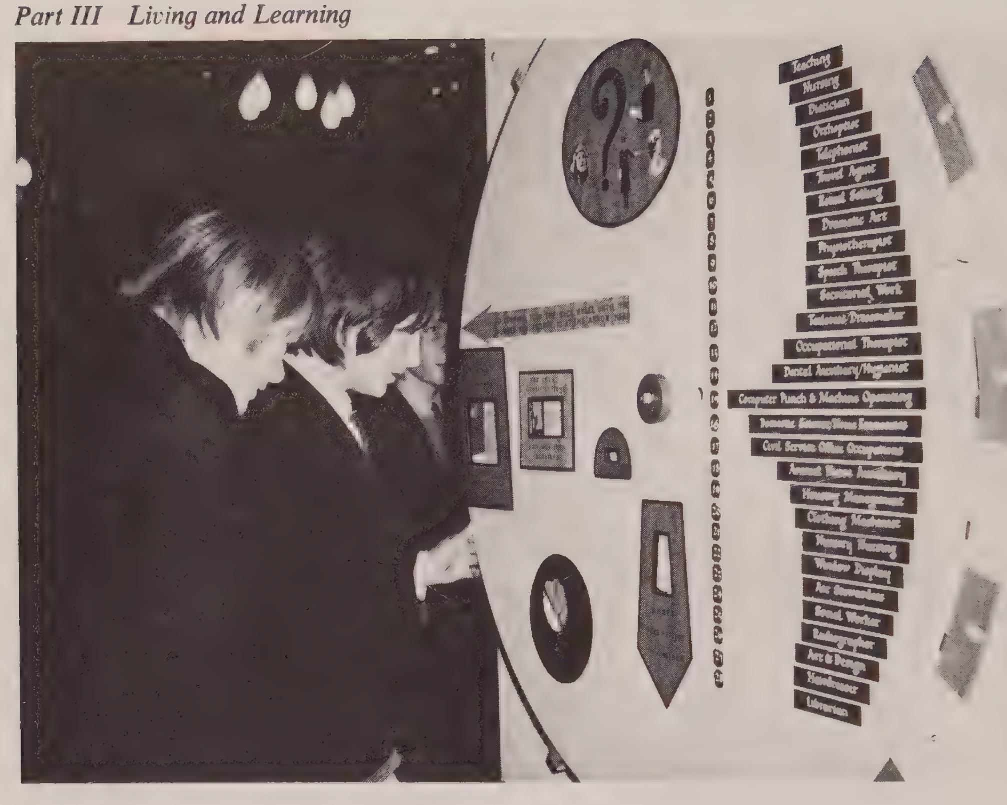
| *Percentage of pupils in comprehensives* | |
|---|---|
| 1950 | 0.3 |
| 1960 | 4.7 |
| 1970 | 30.8 |
| 1971 | 35.9 |
| 1972 | 41.1 |
| 1973 | 47.0 |
| 1974 | 57.4 |
| 1975 | 64.3 |

'I don't object to grammar, I don't object to comprehensive. I object to school.'

'Well, how do you like being in a comprehensive school?'

THE GREAT COMPREHENSIVE DEBATE

| *For* | *Against* |
|---|---|
| 1. More resources, e.g. language laboratories, careers rooms, computer terminals | 1. Large educational factories lacking the personal touch |
| 2. Highly qualified teachers attracted by the larger salaries paid in big schools | 2. Extinction of private grammar schools with great traditions |
| 3. Greater opportunities for late developers, e.g. in the 13–15 age group | 3. Lower standards; the less able may hold back those with high ability |
| 4. Pastoral care and counselling for pupils who are deprived, handicapped or unstable | 4. Lack of discipline with subsequent hooliganism, vandalism, bullying and truancy |
| 5. Removal of stigma; 80 per cent used to be classified as 11+ failures | 5. Decline in manners, and in dress; school uniform is fast disappearing |
| 6. New-style sixth forms offer pupils chance to 'top up' CSE or O levels before going on to higher studies | 6. Less likely to provide intensive education for country's future leaders |


Teaching
Nursing
Dietician
Orthoptist
Telephonist
Travel Agent
Retail Selling
Dramatic Art
Physiotherapist
Speech Therapist
Secretarial Work
Tailoress/Dressmaker
Occupational Therapist
Dental Auxiliary/Hygienist
Computer Punch & Machine Operating
Domestic Science/Home Economics
Civil Service Office Occupations
Animal Nursing Auxiliary
Housing Management
Clothing Machinist
Nursery Nursing
Window Display
Air Stewardess
Social Worker
Radiographer
Art & Design
Hairdresser
Librarian

What do you want to be?

An increasing number of schools are organising **mixed ability groups** where the dullest and the brightest learn together. A mixed ability class might include pupils with **intelligence quotients** (IQs) ranging from 80 to 140. An IQ over 100 denotes above average intelligence; below 100 means less than average.

$$\text{IQ} = \frac{\text{Mental age}}{\text{Actual age}} \times 100$$

Therefore if your mental age is 18 years (i.e. you are as clever as an average 18-year-old), but your real age is 15, your IQ will be 120:

$$\frac{18}{15} \times 100 = 120$$

Mixed ability groups require new teaching methods. A teacher cannot stand in front of a class and explain the same thing to less able and very able pupils. The teacher talks to them in small groups and uses work-cards to keep pupils active. Materials can be shared and **team teaching** practised. Mixed ability groups may improve discipline because problem children are scattered and no longer mass together.

One of the main arguments for abolishing streaming is to provide **equal opportunity**. Does streaming in comprehensives constitute a form of selection as bad as segregating pupils into separate schools?

In 1972–3 the **school leaving age** was raised to sixteen. There has been opposition to ROSLA from

1. pupils who think the extra year is a waste of time
2. employers who lose low-cost young workers
3. parents who have little interest in education and want more household income
4. teachers who find 15–16-year-olds difficult.

Does it seem logical that less time should be spent upon those who find learning difficult?

Education for what? This is the vexed question that surrounds the raising of the school leaving age. There is a need to spend time on basic skills, but pupils must be motivated by something more than just reading, writing and arithmetic. Vocational incentives should be tapped as much as possible.

### SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR THE EXTRA YEAR (15 to 16)

1. New subjects related to life, e.g. motor mechanics, design for living, child care, home management, office practice and typing, social studies, etc.
2. Work experience with local firms
3. Help with transition from school to work, e.g. social economics classes on employment, taxation, social security, etc.
4. Community studies of the neighbourhood, e.g. housing, shopping, transport, local government, etc.
5. Worthwhile extended visits
6. Good outside speakers
7. Improve the leavers' qualifications – most pupils can take the CSE in a few subjects
8. Encourage discrimination in the use of leisure time

## TOPIC 8.7 EDUCATION AFTER SCHOOL

An apprentice is bound to his master (employer/teacher) by an agreement called an *indenture*. **Apprenticeship** usually begins at sixteen and lasts for a fixed period such as three or five years. A trained worker who has served his apprenticeship is much more likely to obtain employment and the highest rate for the job. He will have an advantage over the semi-skilled or the self-trained. Local technical colleges offer *day release* courses for young workers, i.e. a day's full-time study is allowed at the firm's expense. It may be a condition of apprenticeship that attendance is made at day release classes and probably at evening classes as well. Such tuition is essential in order to pass a City and Guilds or Ordinary National Certificate examination. The ONC course lasts two years part-time, usually between the ages of sixteen and nineteen. A higher qualification still is an Ordinary National Diploma with full-time or sandwich courses which involve spending some time at the workplace and some time at a college. A student can go on to the Higher National Certificate (HNC) or the Higher National Diploma (HND).

The new Technician Education Council (TEC) and the Business Education Council (BEC) are re-organising many further education programmes. By the 1980s, the TEC will be awarding four main qualifications: the Certificate, the Higher Certificate, the Diploma and the Higher Diploma. In general, Diploma Courses will be broader than those leading to a Certificate. BEC courses will be at three levels: General, National and Higher. The replacement of existing courses will take a long time, so that ONC, OND, HNC and HND courses will be available for several years to come.

### HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS AND COURSES

| *Institutions* | *Courses* |
|---|---|
| 44 universities | Degrees and postgraduate |
| 30 polytechnics | Degrees, HND, etc. |
| Colleges of further education | External degrees, OND and HND |
| Colleges of education | Certificate of Education, Dip. H.E. and B.Ed., other degrees |

### GROWTH IN HIGHER EDUCATION

| *Year* | *Full-time or sandwich students* | *Percentage of school-leaving population* |
|---|---|---|
| 1961 | 190,000 | 7 |
| 1971 | 460,000 | 15 |
| 1981 | 700,000(estimate) | 22 |

### ADULT EDUCATION

Local authority courses
Workers' Educational Association (WEA)
Residential colleges
Extra-mural departments of universities
Voluntary bodies, e.g. WI, YMCA
Youth groups
Industrial organisations, e.g. CBI, TUC
Village colleges
Community centres
Open university

### EXPLAIN WHAT IS MEANT BY:

educators
informal education
formal education
compulsory education
elementary education
cultural function
play groups
primary education
neighbourhood schools
secondary education
comprehensive schools
streaming

economic function
continuity function
law and order function
political function
educational system
nursery schools
nursery education
mixed ability groups
intelligence quotients
team teaching
equal opportunity
school leaving age
apprenticeship
sandwich course

### CASE STUDY: LIFE BEGINS AT FOURTEEN

John Simpson was fourteen when it happened.

He had been born deaf and dumb, but it was not until he was several months old that his doting parents realised his terrible affliction. John was able to make noises, but they were unintelligible. Even his mother could not understand his peculiar sounds, but her maternal instinct made her aware of his needs and moods.

John was examined by the best doctors but they came to the same conclusion. There seemed to be no cure. Perhaps he would learn to speak if he could only hear. His vocal cords were functioning but his deafness seemed incurable. His parents were reconciled to the fact that their son was doomed to live the life of a deaf mute.

The years drifted by and John's tragic affliction made him educationally backward. What was going on in that mind, which all the experts contended was an intelligent one? Mr and Mrs Simpson thought they would never know.

John's fourteenth birthday arrived. If he had been a normal boy he would have been preparing to make his own living. But his parents had given up all hope of John living a normal existence.

The three of them were having lunch on his birthday when John, with great deliberation, placed his knife and fork on the plate, looked at his parents and said in a somewhat faltering voice, 'This meat is remarkably tough!'

John's parents were astonished, but overjoyed to the point of tears. They remonstrated with their son, and asked why it was that after years of silence he had spoken at last.

John swallowed hard before uttering a word. When he did speak, he said slowly, 'Everything has been all right until now.'

1. In what ways do normal youngsters change in their teens?
2. Why did you accept many things when you were younger which you find difficult to accept now?
3. Suggest three possible reasons for a lack of communication between parents and their children.
4. In what ways can the 'generation gap' be bridged?

### FOLLOW-UP

1. Explain what you understand by five of the following:
   (a) audio-visual aids
   (b) curriculum
   (c) intelligence quotient
   (d) integrated studies
   (e) interdisciplinary studies
   (f) project work
   (g) social education
   (h) syllabus
   (i) team teaching
   (j) timetables
2. What are the advantages and disadvantages of continuous assessment compared with traditional examinations?
3. Suggest five reasons why some schoolgirls are becoming more aggressive than the average schoolboy.
4. List ways in which
   (a) co-operation
   (b) competition
   can be used to help educational development.
5. The photograph shows a Careers Officer at work.
   (a) What difficulties are likely to be met during the transition from school to work?
   (b) What job would you like to do and to what extent is your school taking this into consideration?

### ACTIVITIES

1. Consult a copy of one of Margaret Mead's books and contrast 'learning to be a member of a community' in Britain and in one other country. Her books include *Growing up in New Guinea* and *Coming of Age in Samoa*.
2. Either make a study of a young brother or sister, or visit a friend's home where there are young children, and study some 'educational' toys. Write an account of the skills which these toys are designed to develop.
3. Over a period of one month collect newspaper and magazine pictures on the subject of education. Arrange them in order to show the various stages of formal education.
4. Find out about
   (a) the work of your own school's Parent–Teacher Association
   (b) methods of teaching reading practised in local schools.

A careers officer talking to a young worker

5. List some important points connected with your own educational future after talking to an older person who is following a course which fits in with your ambitions.

CSE QUESTIONS

1. (a) Explain the meaning of the terms:
    (i) informal education
    (ii) formal education.
   (b) Describe *three* of the ways in which you have been informally educated.
   (East Anglian Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
2. (a) Legally a child must start school at five years old. What opportunities are there for education outside the home earlier?
   (b) Why are people campaigning for an earlier start to education?
   (c) Do you think that pre-school education is desirable for *all* under-fives?
   (Metropolitan Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
3. When a child is five years old, he begins compulsory schooling.
   (a) What is an Infant School?
   (b) What is a Junior School?
   (c) What establishments offer education after the age of 16?
   (East Midland Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
4. What would be the features of a course planned by you for the last year of compulsory education which would prepare you for life after school? Give your reasons.
   (Metropolitan Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
5. (a) Explain the following terms: apprenticeship, day release, sandwich course.
   (b) Write about the training involved in *one* career which you have studied.
   (Metropolitan Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
6. More and more young people are extending their education beyond the age at which they leave secondary school. Describe the opportunities for further and higher education in England. For whom would each type be best suited?
   (East Midland Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)

# Unit 9 *YOUTH*

'If there's any trouble with the law, say we're demonstrating against football match violence.'

### TOPIC 9.1 YOUTH CULTURE

In what ways are young people different from the rest of the community? Have they a different culture? To sociologists the word culture means a code of ideas, beliefs and manners, a distinctive way of life. In the same way that a nation has its own special way of life separating it from other nations – in dress, language, feeling of togetherness and aspirations – so youth has its own life-style dividing it from the rest of society. It is a culture within a culture: a **sub-culture.**

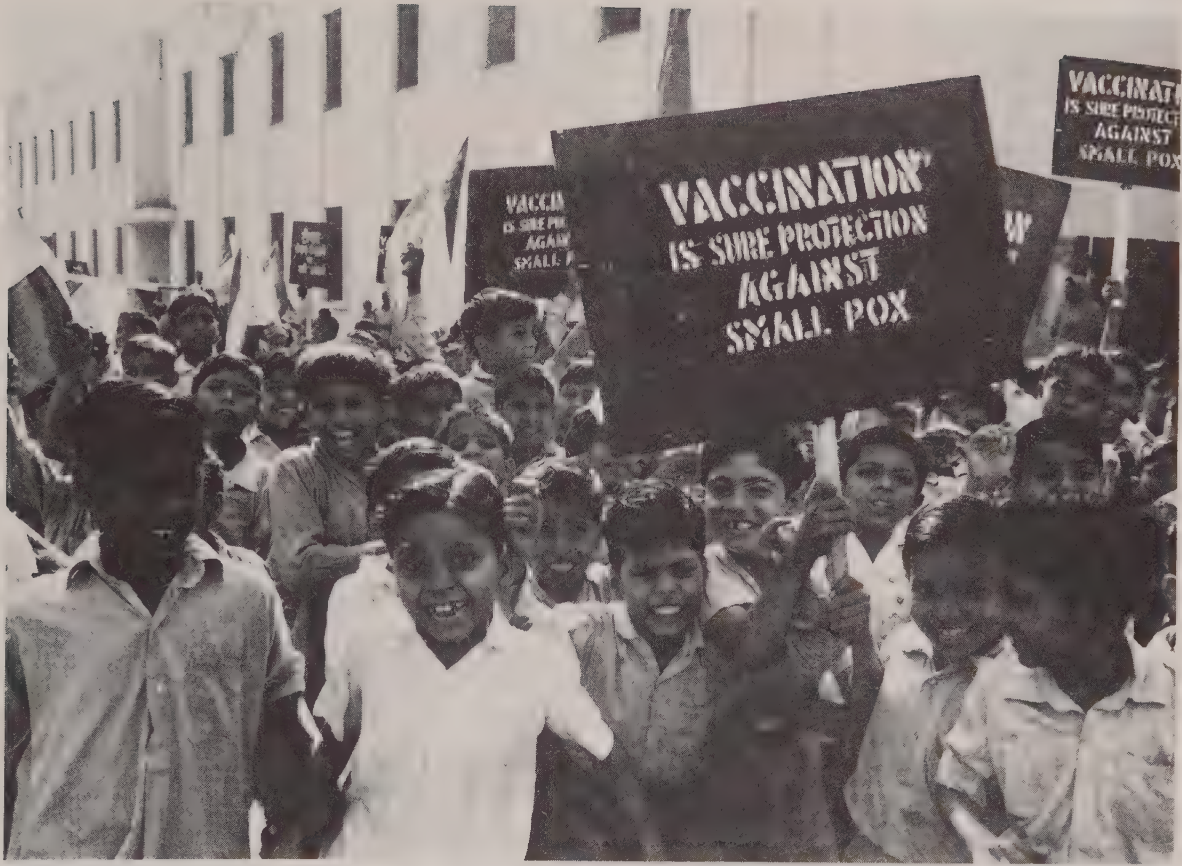
Youth culture is a sub-culture because young people remain part of the community even though they separate themselves from it in many ways. It may help you to understand this concept if you think how the British people jealously guard their way of life although Britain is a member of the European Economic Community; one of the strengths of the EEC is the variety of cultures within it. Young people may sow their wild oats, but after a few years they return to the community and most of them become fully integrated. The length of time during which young people separate themselves from the mainstream of community life depends upon their background and physical make-up.

The generation gap may be narrow or wide. Some young people get on well with the older generation including their parents. Some parents lack understanding and fail to communicate with their offspring. The extent of the **communication gap** depends upon both sides. If there is an atmosphere of give-and-take then the gap may be bridged easily. But it is important that young people should 'find' themselves. They must establish a separate **identity** of their own.

There is no other period in life when a group separates itself from the rest of the community quite so much as during youth. This period usually begins in the early teens and lasts into the early twenties.

Adolescence is a time of change in the human body, and it is a time when youth wants to change the world. We all want to put the world right when we are young. It is a good thing that the community should have to face **youth protests.** It is more worrying if old-fogeyism starts at sixteen! The important thing is to find the right things for which it is worth organising **demos**, and not to give up a struggle for a cause which you believe is worthy and right.

It is sad to see people of middle age, who once had high ideals, but who have forgotten the wrongs existing in society and no longer protest about such things as the plight of lonely old people or the millions of refugees in the world. There is no reason why pupils at school should not protest, as long as they do it sensibly. A serious, thoughtful protest is far more likely to get results than a rowdy,


VACCINATION IS SURE PROTECTION AGAINST SMALL POX

It is worth taking part in a demo to help rid the world of smallpox

violent one which brings authority down on the heads of the protesters and probably causes people to lose what privileges they had. The great Indian statesman Mahatma Gandhi won independence for India, not by war but by passive civil disobedience.

People are likely to respect us if we protest about great issues rather than about selfish things affecting us alone. Some things are worth getting steamed up about. Christ was full of righteous anger when he turned the money-changers out of the Temple.

### TOPIC 9.2 THE YOUTH EXPLOSION

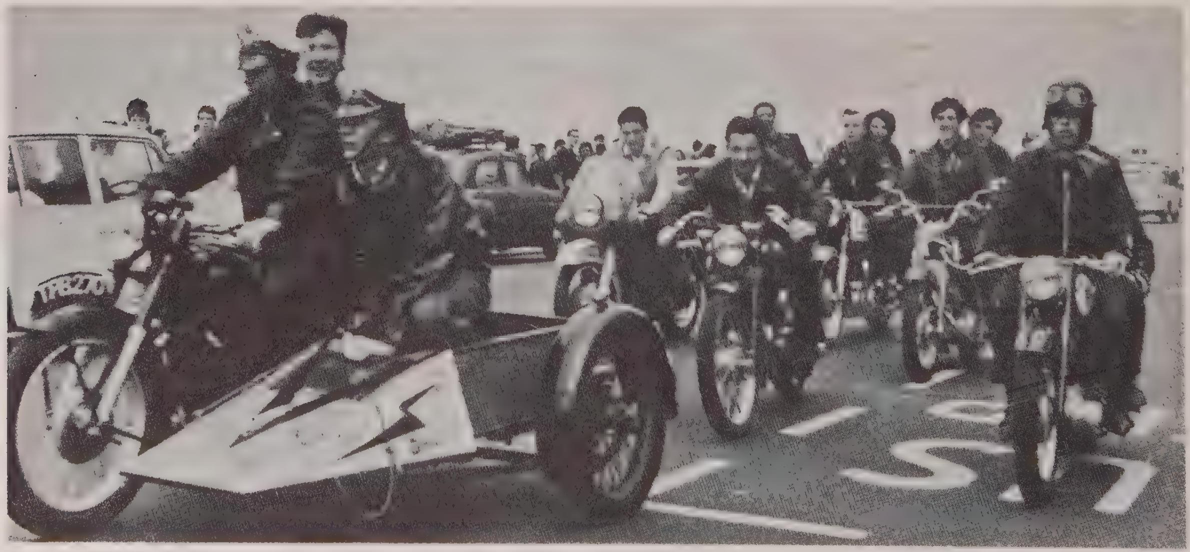
Young people have always sought a life of their own. Approaching adult status, they cling less to their families and seek companions of their own age group. They separate themselves from those younger or older than their peer group. Later they return to the community to marry and settle down as adult members.

Since World War II the distinctive identity of youth has exploded. One reason for this is that the mass media have exploited youth for commercial ends. Young people have far more to spend than ever before and there are plenty of people ready to relieve them of their money. The word *teenager* has become associated with certain trends in fashion, music, language, magazines and entertainment. The *weeny bopper* allows the extension of youth culture to the pre-teenage period. The youth quake exploded into **youth sub-cultures** such as *Teddy Boys, Mods and Rockers, Hippies, Skinheads, Hell's Angels* and *student groups.*

Youth sub-cultures have been associated with **popular culture** or 'pop'.

YOUTH SUB-CULTURES

| *Nickname* | *Features* |
|---|---|
| *Teddy Boys*<br>(or Teds) | Began in South London at time of 1951 Festival of Britain. Called Teddy Boys because of Edwardian style of dress with velvet collars, narrow drainpipe trousers and drape jackets. Music of Johnny Ray and Frankie Laine kept them fairly docile until they embraced rock-and-roll. |
| *Rockers* | Loved grease and motor-cycles, especially BSA's Black Prince. Elvis Presley was their hero. |
| *Mods* | Smart clothes reflected growing spending power of working-class youths. Their 'gear' included tailored jackets, hipster trousers, green shirts, white roll-neck sweaters and Scooter Kids parkas. The Who pop group typified the movement. Battles between Mods and Rockers at seaside resorts. |
| *Hippies* | Flower Power came to Britain via the west coast of the USA. Used the word psychedelic, and the 'mystery drug' LSD. Eventually the Beatles turned Hippie. Jesus Freaks were a later purification of the movement. |
| *Skinheads*<br>(Skins or Bovver Boys) | Reacted to the carefree ideas of the Hippies whom the Skins hated. Known for their short hair, half-mast trousers, braces, and big boots. Looked for trouble ('You want bovver?'), resentful of rest of society. Made the music of Reggae their own. |
| *Hell's Angels* | Largely an American sub-culture; similar to Rockers of fifties and sixties but more ruthless. Favoured large bicycles and tough girlfriends. |
| *Punk Rockers* | Began in Britain in late 1970s. Unemployed youngsters regarded themselves as despised, social rejects. Reacted by playing the part. Johnny Rotten and the Sex Pistols typified the groups. |



Rockers on their status-symbol motorcycles

Mods on their scooters

Hippies and flower power

A skinhead and his girl

Hell's Angels help the YMCA over a postal strike

### TOPIC 9.3 POP

You will know that pop music is a vital part of the life of young people today. It was not always so. Not many years ago, boys in particular spent much of their spare time taking part in sport and in youth organisations such as the Boy Scouts and Boys' Brigade. Transistors and stereos have changed much of that. If you have struggled to be served around a record counter in a large store you will know all about it.

Do your parents realise the importance of music in the lives of young people? Do you see them reading *Melody Maker, New Musical Express, Sounds* or *Record Mirror*? How much do they spend on records each week?

It is impossible to give an exact date to the **pop revolution**. Your grandparents may regard George Formby as the original Beatle! You wouldn't regard Bing Crosby and Frank Sinatra as pop stars, would you? What about Elvis Presley or Bill Haley and the Comets? Before you were born they were the pop idols of the fifties. Sometimes we get reminders of the activities of the youth of yesterday by revivals of old crazes such as rock-and-roll.

The key date in the commanding influence of pop music upon youth was 1964 and the key influence was the Beatles. When Brian Epstein arrived in the United States with the Beatles in 1964, the seventeen-year-olds were the largest single age group in that country for the first time.

> 'By virtue of sheer numbers and spending power, American teenagers now were more easily able to diffuse their causes, ideas and adolescent enthusiasms among other age groups. The timing of the Beatles' arrival in New York could not have been better.'
>
> (*Apple to the Core* by Peter McCabe and Robert D. Schonfeld)

Harold Wilson went one better by recommending the Beatles for the MBE. Disgruntled adult holders of the MBE sent back their medals. They did not understand the importance of the youth revolution or their impotence to stop it.

Since the early sixties a wide variety of pop cultures have developed. Bob Dylan and Joan Baez produced their protest music. The Blues, Soul and Tamla Motown are part of Black pop music. Folk music is largely enjoyed by young people in sixth forms and colleges, but perhaps you enjoy it too.

A huge industry has grown up around the business of making and advertising records. The music industry has given employment to groups, disc jockeys, promoters of concerts and television programmes such as 'Top of the Pops'. Have you been to a pop festival? Which records are in the Top Ten this week and who is top of the charts?

### TOPIC 9.4 YOUTH ORGANISATIONS

It would be wrong to think that the youth revolution with its pop culture has replaced traditional **youth organisations**. Voluntary organisations provide the largest share of all youth activity and have the loyal support of 5 million young people.

#### WHY BE A MEMBER OF A YOUTH CLUB?

1. Activities
   (a) social – dances, discos and socials
   (b) physical – games, sports and other recreations
   (c) educational – talks, visits and discussions
2. Meeting other young people and forming new friendships
3. A valuable change from staying at home and watching television
4. Participation in running something
   (a) serve on committees
   (b) organise tournaments
   (c) serve refreshments
   (d) arrange the club programme, etc.
5. More satisfaction than just roaming the streets and messing about in a disorganised way
6. Club leaders are people who care about youth and are worth following
7. Scope for contribution to life of the community; a good club will look outwards as well as inwards

The *Scout* movement, started by Lord Baden-Powell, is the most famous world-wide youth organisation. With its ideals and its motto of 'Be prepared' it has been copied even by communist countries. The rules of the communist youth organisation, the Pioneers, read like a Scout's manual:

> 'A pioneer studies diligently, is disciplined and courteous. A pioneer tells the truth and treasures the honour of his unit.'

These youngsters are on a job of environmental improvement. Can you see an older member of the group? He is an 18-year-old full-time community service volunteer

Fifty national youth organisations belong to the National Council for Voluntary Youth Services. Some of the biggest voluntary youth organisations are shown in the table.

LARGE YOUTH ORGANISATIONS

| *Organisation* | *Membership* |
|---|---|
| Girl Guides | 800,000 |
| Boy Scouts | 600,000 |
| National Association of Youth Clubs | 400,000 |
| Youth Hostels Association | 275,000 |
| National Association of Boys' Clubs | 170,000 |
| Boys' Brigade | 150,000 |
| Methodist Association of Youth Clubs | 110,000 |

Are you a member of a youth organisation? A 1972 survey on the **Youth Service** showed that two-thirds of young people between the ages of 14 and 20 were members of some club or association. Organised youth activities are most popular with the 14–16 age group. It is hard to pass through school without being involved in some organised activity. It is likely that you belong to a club and join with members who are interested in radio or chess or stamps or model aircraft or some other hobby. List the clubs or activities at your school. To which do you belong?

A successful club will have a clear purpose. If it is a fishing club members will like to hear talks about fishing, watch demonstrations of equipment and take part in competitions. People who just drift into a club in an aimless way will not stick. If nothing is provided except a record player then the club is likely to flop. Members of a good youth organisation will be actively involved.

'I think it's a sort of *Outward Bounder* course.'

Voluntary youth groups in the community are helped by local education authorities who lend premises or equipment and make money grants. Local authorities have a **youth organiser** and a **youth committee** upon which voluntary groups are represented. There are 3,000 full-time youth workers in Britain and a much larger number of voluntary part-time workers. If you are interested in youth work, several colleges run two-year courses.

The best youth clubs introduce a measure of democracy into the running of the club. Although the youth leader must *lead*, he will be assisted by a committee elected by the members. A good club will supply its own leaders from the ranks, and it will be the ambition of those who have the welfare of the club at heart to grow up to be assistant leaders. The club is likely to be more alive and in touch with youth if it is mainly run for youth by youth.

The *Outward Bound Trust* has six schools in Britain, one for girls and five for boys, training about 6,000 young people aged between 14 and 20 each year. Training consists of a 26-day course to test determination, self-control, initiative and a sense of responsibility.

One of the most searching tests for young people is the Duke of Edinburgh Award Scheme. Each year 200,000 young people aged between 14 and 25 take part in this scheme, which is operated through local authorities, youth clubs, schools and firms. They compete for the Bronze, Silver and Gold Awards in four out of five sections:

(1) service
(2) interests
(3) expeditions
(4) physical activity
(5) design for living.

The Duke of Edinburgh Award Scheme is designed to challenge young people to reach certain standards in leisure-time activity. How do you spend your leisure?

## TOPIC 9.5 LEISURE

The *Oxford Dictionary* gives the meaning of leisure as 'free time, time at one's own disposal'. It is the time you have for yourself. The youth of today have far more **leisure** time than young people had years ago.

There is such a wide variety of leisure pursuits in the modern world that you have the opportunity to be very selective. Technology has changed our lives, and it has changed the way we spend our leisure.

INVENTIONS HAVE CHANGED LEISURE PATTERNS

1. Improved methods of travel, e.g. bicycle, motorbike, car, railways, aircraft, hovercraft, etc.
2. Broadcasting – television and radio
3. Cinema and photography in general
4. Records – from the gramophone to hi-fi stereo
5. Mechanical aids – juke boxes and pin machines
6. Building constructions – swimming pools and dance halls

The way people spend their leisure depends upon environment and social background. This is easy to see if you look at the extremes of class divisions. Most working-class youths spend their leisure in urban pursuits. They go 'down town' with their friends or meet them there. Their leisure time is likely to be spent in a crowd. There are plenty of people of the same age to form teams for competitive games, even though the number of recreation grounds is limited.

The professional football team, representing the town, attracts thousands of supporters, many of whom live for the matches. Life is occupied by pre-match anticipation and after-match activities. In the evenings the dance halls and discotheques are crowded, while cinemas provide another place of meeting.

**Your wife wants a Greek Island Cruise.**
**The children want a hotel by a sandy beach.**
**You want a motoring holiday.**

Urban working-class youths spend much of their leisure in spectator pursuits. They let off steam by shouting for their team. If they want to get into the countryside they have to wait for weekends or holidays so they can enjoy the open air and go fishing, cycling, camping, canoeing, rock climbing, orienteering, etc. These are all **active pursuits** and provide a welcome change from the **passive pursuits** of watching football or films. Leisure activities which provide 'kicks' give relief from repetitive factory work.

Upper-middle-class youths have parents who can provide leisure pursuits needing more space. They may have opportunities for sailing, golfing or gliding. Having a lot of money does not necessarily bring happiness. A person who has so much money that he has done almost everything may finish up like the young lady who said:

> 'I'm so bored with talking about holidays. It always causes an argument. Mother wants to go on a cruise. Father wants to motor to Rome, but we would rather sunbathe on the beach. We can't make up our minds so I don't think we will go anywhere.'

Many working-class youths these days have a lot of spending money. They buy expensive records, under-water diving equipment, water skis, etc. Sports such as badminton and squash have an increasingly popular appeal. You do not have to own a yacht to go sailing.

The differences between the sexes does not cause such a dividing line between leisure pursuits as it once did. Boys are normally not interested in cookery or dressmaking, but in these days of unisex there is a greater conformity of leisure activities. Boys are better at rugby while more girls prefer horse-riding, but both sexes share in most amusements. Choirs and drama groups are more successful when both sexes participate.

Leisure is no longer confined to taking it easy or unhurried pastimes. Hobbies such as collecting coins and stamps are very popular, but many leisure attractions are connected with speed. An increasing number of people are interested (either as participants or spectators) in motor racing, speedway, stock cars and go-carts. Is this because we live in a hurried age?

Many people get great enjoyment in our National Parks, ten of which have been established since 1949. The *National Trust* owns and protects 160 hectares (400,000 acres) of land, twenty historic buildings and large stretches of coastline. The Trust, which was founded in 1895, is the largest private landowner in Britain and has about 450,000 members.

A *Nature Conservancy Council* has been appointed by the Secretary of State for the Environment, but it is vital that we should all be concerned about the conservation of the countryside and the best things from the past. They are part of our national heritage.

Many people like to spend their leisure amongst things of the past. They enjoy investigating archaeological sites (which are protected by the Ministry of Works), or exploring museums and art galleries. The *Civic Trust* was established in 1957 to encourage interest in architecture. The Trust supports over 1,000 amenity societies. It provided the secretariat for the European Architectural Heritage Year in 1975.

It may surprise you to find that leisure and work are closely linked. The best type of professional footballer enjoys the game, whether he plays it for money or love. A qualified music teacher may spend his spare time conducting an orchestra or playing an instrument.

In the next unit we shall be looking at work. It is important to find some employment which provides job satisfaction. If you are interested in animals, then veterinary work, or looking after animals in any way, will give you a great deal of pleasure. You may find yourself happier at work than at other times. When your work is leisure, and your leisure is work, you have found the secret of a happy life.

## TOPIC 9.6 HEALTH PROBLEMS

The business of growing up is bound to produce health problems. Some of these are not worth worrying about as they soon pass. What can adolescents do if they are called pimply teenagers? It helps a lot to wash the face frequently, with medicated soap if the skin is greasy, to avoid starchy food and squeezing or scratching the pimples!

Young people, especially if they are dating, want to guard against BO (body odour). Human beings have 2 million sweat glands producing two pints of fluid a day. Frequent washing and clean underclothes help a lot. If bad breath is caused by decayed teeth it can only be corrected by a visit to the dentist. But there are far more important health problems than facial spots or BO. One of these is the possibility of deafness which has increased enormously in recent years. It is difficult to convince young people who enjoy discos that the noise may damage their ears for the rest of their lives. Three other health hazards which people face are:

(1) drugs
(2) tobacco
(3) alcohol.

These are not problems of young people alone. Alcohol is really a drug. So is nicotine which is found in tobacco. It is arguable whether alcohol and tobacco are worse evils than **drugs** such as amphetamines and cannabis. Cigarettes and alcohol are **socially accepted drugs**. This does not make them any better for the human body, but it does make them legal.

*Drugs.* A great problem with all these things is the question of dependence. If young people become **escapists** from everyday problems by taking drugs, there is always the chance that they will become dependent on them. It is a vicious circle. People who take drugs often start with problems. After they have taken drugs they have far more problems.

A drug is a chemical substance affecting the brain and nervous system. **Drug addicts** are people who become hooked. Addicts (or 'junkies') may have to seek supplies from a 'pusher' and the criminal underworld. So their addiction will bring them into trouble with the law. In the case of heroin and other hard drugs it may eventually mean death.

'Drug' is a very misused word. Sick people are prescribed drugs by qualified doctors. Drugs such as antibiotics, anaesthetics, antihistamines and vaccines are used to prevent or treat diseases. Habit-forming drugs which adversely affect the

ABUSED DRUGS

| *Drugs* | *Effect* | *Common names* |
|---|---|---|
| Stimulants (e.g. amphetamines) | Temporary feeling of wellbeing, but later depression | Speed (e.g. Black bombers, Dex or Blues) |
| Depressant or sleeping tablets (e.g. Mandrax and barbiturates) | Remove anxiety, but usually lead to being dependent | Mandries, Nems or Downers |
| Analgesics or opiates (e.g. heroin) | Sense of power followed by great dependence | 'H' (or Horse) or Smack |
| Hallucinogens (e.g. Lysergy) | Provide a trip with hallucinations and delusions. May be frightening and cause brain damage | LSD (lysergic acid diethylamide) |
| Soporific (e.g. cannabis) | Feeling of well-being | Marijuana, Hash or Pot |

nervous system are dangerous. The best advice to anybody thinking of taking such drugs is 'Don't start.'

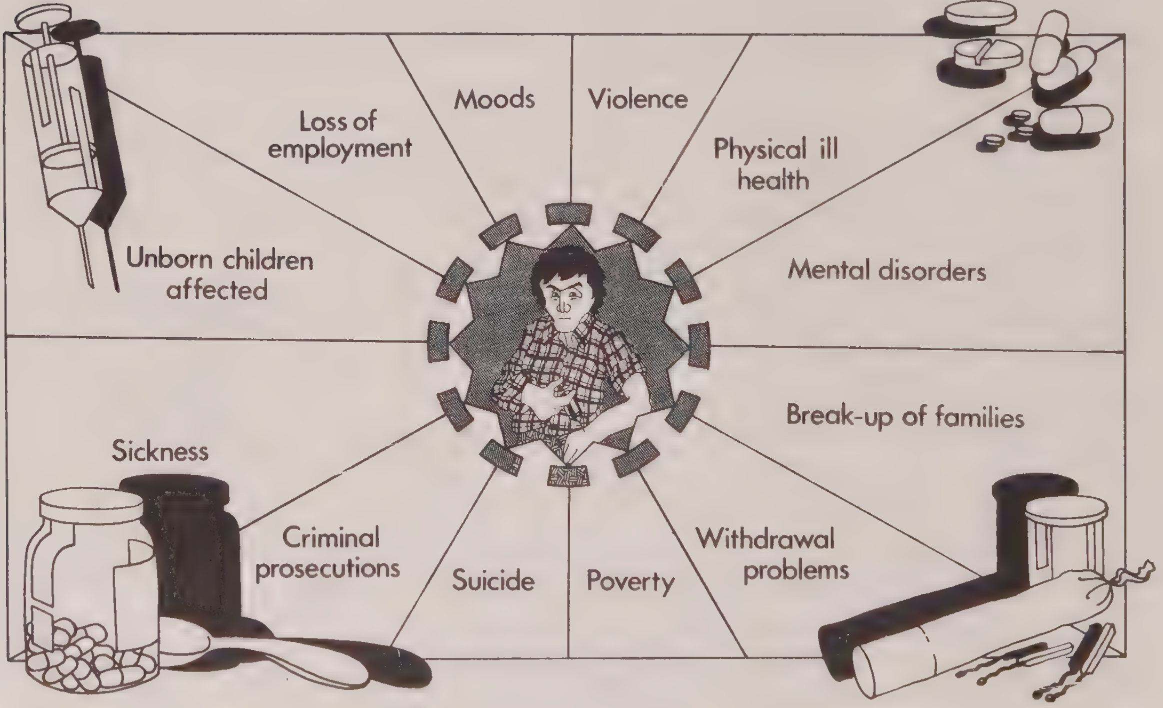
It is right that you should want to know about such things. Ignorance is the main enemy. Plenty of drug addicts have said that if they had known the whole story from the beginning, they would not have started. The vast majority of those addicted to hard drugs started with soft drugs such as marijuana. Drugs have fascinated mankind for generations. They can be used for good or evil.

Would you open a medicine chest and experiment by taking some of the contents? You are not likely to be as stupid as that. It is dangerous to dabble in things which even medical experts do not fully understand.

Drug addiction is becoming a more serious problem. The Home Office recorded 530 known addicts in 1962 and 1,880 in 1976, but the number of press accounts indicates that there are more cases than officially recorded.

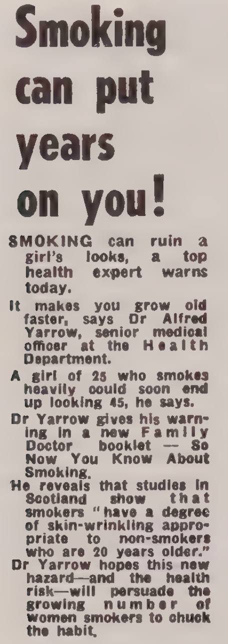
Great suffering is caused to an addict who cannot get supplies of his drug. He may suffer from such **withdrawal symptoms** as breathing difficulties, variable heart beats, vomiting, unease, depression, delusions, and may even become violent. British law allows addicts to be registered and have drugs prescribed under the National Health Service. This measure has been criticised as encouraging drug-taking, but it seems better than the American method of refusing supplies; addicts who cannot get a 'fix' may resort to suicide, violence or a life of crime. The addict becomes penniless as he is at the mercy of ruthless 'pushers', and if the addict is a parent, the children may go without food. He becomes careless about his habits and personal cleanliness. Drug clinics do a fine job, but the best cure is prevention – never to start.

*Tobacco*. It is all too easy for adults to complain about young people taking drugs, while they



A drugs 'trip' is like space travel. It is bad enough getting out there. Re-entry is far more frightening and dangerous

themselves have been captured by the smoking habit. Smoking and drug-taking can both be addictive and dangerous. The leaves of the tobacco plant contain nicotine which is very poisonous. Fortunately about 90 per cent of nicotine is either burned or puffed out with the



## Smoking can put years on you!

SMOKING can ruin a girl's looks, a top health expert warns today.

It makes you grow old faster, says Dr Alfred Yarrow, senior medical officer at the Health Department.

A girl of 25 who smokes heavily could soon end up looking 45, he says.

Dr Yarrow gives his warning in a new Family Doctor booklet — So Now You Know About Smoking.

He reveals that studies in Scotland show that smokers "have a degree of skin-wrinkling appropriate to non-smokers who are 20 years older."

Dr Yarrow hopes this new hazard—and the health risk—will persuade the growing number of women smokers to chuck the habit.

smoke, but that still leaves 10 per cent to be absorbed by the body.

Cigarettes provide the greatest danger for smokers. About 90 per cent of those who die from lung cancer are heavy smokers of cigarettes (over forty a day). Lung cancer is the form of cancer that is increasing most rapidly, and although more men than women die from this disease, women are catching up fast as they adopt men's habits.

You may hear people argue in favour of drugs such as tobacco and alcohol on the grounds that these drugs have a social purpose. They may say it is easier to make friends if you offer somebody a cigarette or a drink and that these things are social devices for removing **inhibitions** and making people feel more at ease. There is some truth in all this, so a good motto might be 'all things in moderation'. But St Paul may not have been completely accurate when he said these words. Would you like leprosy or lung cancer in moderation?

*Alcohol.* Those addicted to alcohol may become alcoholics or die from alcoholic poisoning, apart from the dangers of losing self-control so that they become fighting drunk or commit some sexual act which they spend a lifetime regretting. The community faces great dangers from drunken drivers.

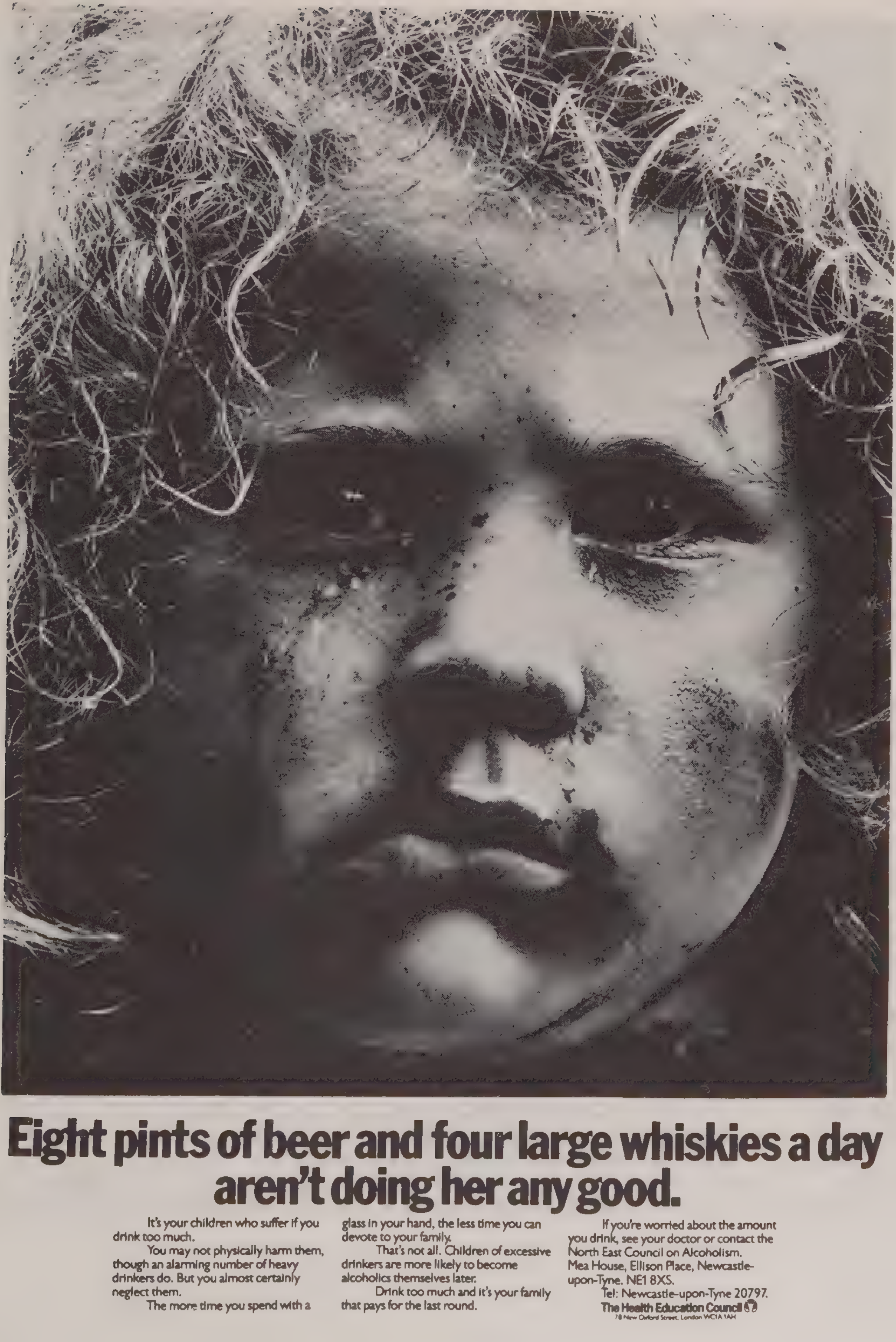
There are probably nearly half a million alcoholics in Britain; in 1975, 10,000 people suffering from alcoholism were admitted to mental hospitals. The Road Research Laboratory found that 48 per cent of road deaths during a Christmas holiday period were caused by people who had been drinking alcohol.

Alcoholics Anonymous is a group of people who try to help one another to stop drinking. The advice of this society is that those struggling to give up drink *must not drink alcohol at all.*

*Conclusion.* You are bound to face problems during that stage of the human life-cycle called **puberty**. That is the stage when the sex organs mature. Puberty comes to girls usually two years before it affects boys. Girls have the problem of menstruation at the age of about eleven. Boys are usually about thirteen when sperms become active as the testes mature; the larynx enlarges and they may be embarrassed as their voices 'break'. Both

### ALCOHOL HAS HARMFUL EFFECTS MEDICALLY

1. Impairs the nervous system and causes slow reactions, poor vision, blurred speech and loss of judgement
2. Abnormal behaviour such as giggling, crying, aggression and rowdyism
3. Lack of muscle co-ordination so that the person stumbles, falls, or drives a car carelessly
4. The skin blood vessels carry an abnormal amount of blood (notice the red noses and flushed faces of heavy drinkers), and the subsequent decrease in blood supply to the liver and kidneys may be dangerous. The kidneys also suffer from lack of water because more water is sent to the skin (note the clammy flesh of the drunk)
5. If alcoholism develops, the victim craves for alcoholic drink even in the early mornings. One small drink may now cause loss of control and the person becomes pathetic and depraved
6. Alcoholism can develop into 'DTs' or *delirium tremens* because the brain cells are damaged; the victim has hallucinations of frightening things



# Eight pints of beer and four large whiskies a day aren't doing her any good.

It's your children who suffer if you drink too much.

You may not physically harm them, though an alarming number of heavy drinkers do. But you almost certainly neglect them.

The more time you spend with a glass in your hand, the less time you can devote to your family.

That's not all. Children of excessive drinkers are more likely to become alcoholics themselves later.

Drink too much and it's your family that pays for the last round.

If you're worried about the amount you drink, see your doctor or contact the North East Council on Alcoholism.
Mea House, Ellison Place, Newcastle-upon-Tyne. NE1 8XS.
Tel: Newcastle-upon-Tyne 20797.

**The Health Education Council**
78 New Oxford Street, London WC1A 1AH

girls and boys find hair growing over the pubis and under the armpits. Boys and girls become more self-conscious and more conscious of each other as these physical changes take place. All this is part of growing up and is not to be feared.

The best way to face health hazards is to live a full life so that you do not feel the need for artificial stimulants or depressants. Health problems are best kept under control in three ways:

(1) regular exercises
(2) sufficient sleep
(3) personal cleanliness.

### TOPIC 9.7 JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

The majority of young people go straight. It is only a small minority who go wrong.

Maladjusted children find it difficult to fit into the community. If we look at the problem of **juvenile delinquency** with our basic concepts of heredity and environment in mind, we find that the main cause of juvenile crime is a failure to adjust to the environment, i.e. to rules laid down by society. Where a large number of children from one family finish up before the court, the underlying reasons are nearly always found in their surroundings.

Youth clubs offer more satisfaction than messing about in a disorganised way

Most of us have aggressive instincts. We learnt in our study of the individual that human action is guided by motives such as aggression which can be *anti-society*. During a war the aggressive instinct is useful to the state and the violent young man may become a hero for king and country.

When there is no war on, it is difficult to harness the energy of these young people in a useful way. In medieval times tournaments were arranged to allow individual human combat. It has been a custom of communities the world over to have **tests of manhood** by which young men proved themselves. Do you think it is one of the problems of our society that there is no such test?

Activities involved in the Duke of Edinburgh Award and Outward Bound Schemes provide such a test, but it is difficult to get young people to participate. In primitive societies young men did not volunteer to undergo the test of manhood. They were compelled to take it – but they also wanted to take it! No one was allowed to slip into manhood or escape from it. Once the test was passed they were proud to be regarded as men and behaved as adults.

Uncurbed aggressive impulses lie dormant in many boys today, and also in girls, though to a lesser extent. But in these days of sexual equality some girls may display the same *anti-community* attitudes as boys.

By the time the child gets to the court much of the damage has been done. But attempts are made at a juvenile court to look with a caring nature upon those brought before it. The parents are brought in to consult with the magistrates, and the newspapers are not allowed to print names of offenders because that would make more difficult the job of reclaiming them for society. The main object of the juvenile court is not to punish but to help the young person to readjust to society.

But the youngster who lacks a secure home is at a disadvantage. **Latchkey children**, who arrive home when parents are out, are liable to commit crimes. A large proportion of offences by young people are committed between 4 p.m. and 6 p.m., when parents are still at work, or on Saturdays and Sundays. The increase in the number of mothers going out to work has been accompanied by an increase in crime.

But the seeds of juvenile delinquency are sown at an early age. The lack of a warm parent–infant relationship may prevent the child from maturing into responsible adulthood. A youngster who is deprived of a normal upbringing is likely to find life lonely and meaningless. On the other hand, some children may go wrong because of soft, doting parents. Children can have things too easy.

### SOME CAUSES OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

Instincts of aggression, acquisition, etc.
Lack of parental affection
Poverty in the home
Illegitimacy
Brought up by single parent
Examples from brothers and sisters
Bad urban area
Feeling of insecurity and injustice
Emotional disturbance
Over-indulgence by well-to-do parents
Inadequacy, mental and physical
Neglect in upbringing
Loneliness – few friends
Weak parental discipline
Misunderstood at school
Injustice of a society in which wealth and income are unfairly distributed

### EXPLAIN WHAT IS MEANT BY:

sub-culture
communications gap
identity
youth protests
demos
youth sub-cultures
popular culture
pop revolution
youth organisations
The Youth Service
youth organiser
youth committee
leisure
active pursuits
passive pursuits
drugs
socially accepted drugs
escapists
drug addicts
withdrawal symptoms
inhibitions
puberty
juvenile delinquency
tests of manhood
latchkey children

### CASE STUDY: ONE MAN IN A BOOT

Tommy Thompson was seventeen. It had been his lifetime ambition to be a professional footballer and play for his local team, the United. He had already signed terms as an apprentice professional and was well known at the ground.

The manager was a hard man and much of the club's success in recent years had been achieved through his devotion to the club. He had no time for what he called young undisciplined softies. 'What I want,' he would declare, 'are young men of character.'

Tommy found he was expected to do many odd jobs at the ground. On Mondays he rarely saw a football as he swept the stands, picked up litter, carried crates of empty bottles and collected the players' kit for laundering. Tuesday was the best day of the week because he trained with the first team. Tommy had been playing in the Reserves for two months and had the makings of a star. He had scored in every game and his name was beginning to be mentioned in connection with a first-team place.

The manager was shrewd in his treatment of young players. His idea of a good player was one who played for the *team* and who was not selfish with the ball to gain glory for himself. He had made Tommy have his hair cut several times. 'I'll not have any long-haired freaks with ribbons playing for United,' he shouted. Tommy began to think the manager did not like him. He was wrong. The manager liked Tommy enough to be determined to make a good footballer out of him – for the United's sake, not Tommy's! He had to find some way of making Tommy realise that he still had a lot to learn. He had to take the youngster down a peg.

'You're still a one-footed player,' he snapped after Tuesday's training session, when Tommy had thought he had done particularly well. 'You'll never be any good to United until you can kick with your left boot. I'll give you some special training next Tuesday.'

On the following Monday the manager immersed a football in a pail of water and left it there until the next day. As Tommy ran out for his training session with the first team he was feeling very pleased with himself. He had scored a hat trick for the Reserves on Saturday, he had a pair of new boots and the first team skipper had just congratulated him. Tommy had forgotten the manager's threats.

'Thompson!' said the manager sharply, before a ball had been kicked, 'go and take off your right boot, sock and shinpad.'

'But I . . . ,' began Tommy.

'Don't argue with me, lad, or you'll get my boot behind you.'

Tommy trooped off dejectedly and returned with a naked right foot.

'Now you can play in the practice game,' said the manager, 'and don't chicken out of anything.' He threw Tommy the ball. It felt like a lump of lead.

Tommy kicked off gently with his left foot, received a return pass and went racing down the field. He veered over to the right of the goal and shot with his trusty right. Then he yelled. He thought his right foot had come off; he sank to the ground.

'Get up, you lazy blighter,' shouted the manager. 'You're not on a picnic.'

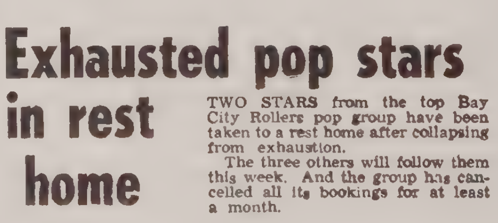
By the end of the practice game Tommy was kicking quite well with his left. He had even scored with a left-foot drive. The manager put his arm round him on the way back to the dressing room.

'That was pretty good, Tommy lad,' he said softly, 'We'll make a man of you yet. By the way, I'm giving you a chance in the first team on Saturday.'

1. Make a list of things you do not do well, and which you try to avoid practising (e.g. mathematics, French, science?).
2. Why do so many youth organisations such as Scouts and Guides stress discipline, uniforms and a code of conduct?
3. Relate in your own words an example of how something 'made a man (or woman) of you'.
4. Try to find examples of various tests or initiation ceremonies practised in other societies to mark a young man's 'coming to manhood'.

FOLLOW-UP

1. Suggest five ways in which your culture differs from that of your teacher because unlike you he or she is an adult.
2. Write a case study describing the activities of a young acquaintance who has been in trouble with the police. Use fictitious names.



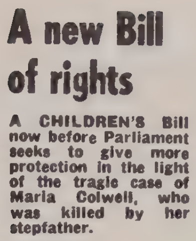
**Exhausted pop stars in rest home**

TWO STARS from the top Bay City Rollers pop group have been taken to a rest home after collapsing from exhaustion.

The three others will follow them this week. And the group has cancelled all its bookings for at least a month.

3. In what ways is life exhausting for pop stars?
4. Outline how you would go about preparing for the Duke of Edinburgh Award (Bronze).
5. 'The teenager is an international phenomenon: from San Francisco to London, from Leningrad to South Africa, the youth revolution is continuous.' (Kenneth Leech in *Youthquake*, 1973.) Describe youth activities that you have heard about in other countries.

ACTIVITIES



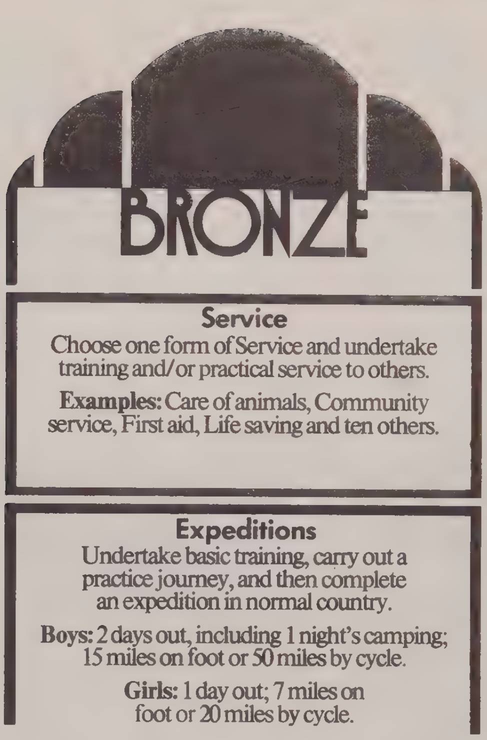
## A new Bill of rights

**A CHILDREN'S Bill now before Parliament seeks to give more protection in the light of the tragic case of Maria Colwell, who was killed by her stepfather.**

1. Find out all you can about
   (a) the Maria Colwell case
   (b) the NSPCC
   (c) the Children's Bill of Rights.
2. Visit a discotheque or youth club in the role of an observer, not a participant. Make notes about any distinctive
   (a) activities
   (b) attitudes
   (c) clothes
   (d) language (not just swearing).
3. Collect cuttings of some youth protests (e.g. about students' grants). Divide them into those that are
   (a) intended to get something *for the people concerned*
   (b) intended to get something *for other people*.
   Assess your findings.
4. Make a survey of TV programmes and list ways in which they attempt to influence young people.
5. Use your public reference library and list five books about youth. Write a book review of *one* of them.

CSE QUESTIONS

1. (a) Name four dangers to the health of teenagers.
   (b) How would you explain these dangers to young people?
   (Metropolitan Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
2. What areas of protest do you think it is reasonable for pupils to demonstrate about?
   (Metropolitan Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
3. If you have been a member of a particular youth organisation or have taken part in the Duke of Edinburgh Award Scheme, explain its purpose, and show how your experiences fit into this purpose.
   (East Midland Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)



**Service**

Choose one form of Service and undertake training and/or practical service to others.

**Examples:** Care of animals, Community service, First aid, Life saving and ten others.

**Expeditions**

Undertake basic training, carry out a practice journey, and then complete an expedition in normal country.

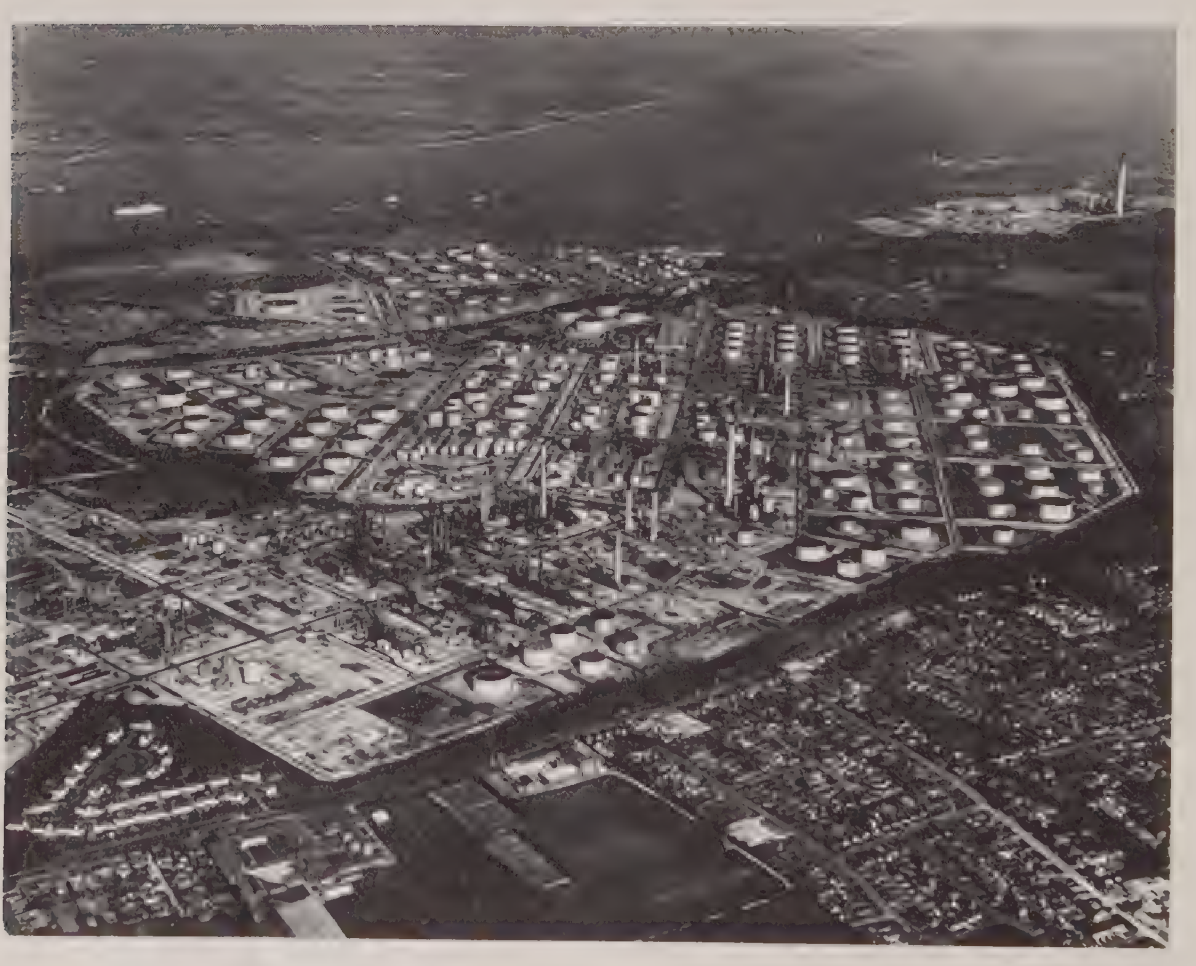
**Boys:** 2 days out, including 1 night's camping; 15 miles on foot or 50 miles by cycle.

**Girls:** 1 day out; 7 miles on foot or 20 miles by cycle.

4. In what ways have changes in technology affected the way people spend their leisure over the last fifty years?
   What is leisure?
   How do people spend their leisure? Can you list any differences in the way people spend their leisure time according to their age, sex or social class?
   What changes have taken place as a result of inventions such as the bicycle and motor car, cinema and television?
   (Middlesex Regional Examining Board for CSE, Social Studies)
5. What part do the following play in preserving our countryside?
   (a) National Parks
   (b) National Trust
   (c) Nature Conservancy
   (d) Civic Trust
   (East Midland Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
6. (a) What part should youth club members themselves play in the running of their club?
   (b) What improvements within reasonable financial limits would you like to see in your local youth clubs?
   (Metropolitan Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)

# IV EARNING A LIVING

## Unit 10 *INDUSTRY*



In what ways is this a good site for an oil refinery?

## TOPIC 10.1 WHAT IS AN INDUSTRY?

If your teacher says you are an industrious person he means that you are good at working. You may be good at writing or woodwork or social studies. Similarly, when the economist uses the word **industry**, he means all types of work. He includes workers who earn their living in factories, offices or shops, plus nurses, teachers, policemen and all those who work with people.

Here is a useful threefold division of workers:

1. **Industrial workers** are concerned with the production of goods. They include people who produce goods from which other things are made: miners who get the coal and farmers who grow wheat which will eventually be made into bread. The 9 million men and women who earn their living in our factories helping to manufacture goods are also classed as industrial workers.
2. **Commercial workers** help to pass goods to consumers. Under this heading we include people who work in warehouses and shops, or who transport the goods. Workers in banks are important because there would be no goods produced without money.
3. **Service workers** do not produce goods but they provide valuable services such as repairing cars or serving meals in restaurants.

Some industries are situated in a particular area, but others (such as agriculture and banking) are spread all over the country. There are farmers in every county in Britain and there are banks in every town.

If an industry is located in a certain area there are good reasons for it. What industries are located in your area and why are they there rather than somewhere else?

## TOPIC 10.2 LOCATION OF INDUSTRY

The siting or **location of industry** is rarely a simple business. An industry is found in a certain district for a number of reasons. Although Britain has many industries we have no large supplies of **raw materials** such as wool or iron ore with which goods are made. Why, then, have we a woollen manufacturing industry and an iron and steel industry?

Years ago we had large supplies of home-produced wool; in the eighteenth century there were more sheep than people in Britain! During the Industrial Revolution, iron ore and coal were mined together. Today we import from overseas most of the wool used in our woollen mills and most of the ores used in our steel rolling mills. So an industry may continue in an area even though many of the original advantages have disappeared – we call this **industrial inertia.** The industry carries on because the factories are still there and so are the people trained to do the job.

Raw materials must be transported, so industries have grown up where there are good **means of communication**. Rivers and harbours are natural geographical advantages. Try to think of at least five towns situated on a river (use an atlas if necessary). Many towns are sited on a river estuary and take their name from the river, e.g. Yarmouth at the mouth of the Yare, and Exmouth at the mouth of the Exe. Rivers are useful for moving raw materials to factories or for moving finished goods to consumers.

In the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries a large number of canals were constructed; many of these linked rivers and were very useful for the movement of goods. Josiah Wedgwood, the famous potter, arranged for an engineer called James Brindley to take a branch of the Grand Trunk Canal, joining the rivers Trent and Mersey, into one of his factories at Etruria in the potteries.

Raw cotton was transported by sea to Liverpool at the mouth of the river Mersey. Lancashire did not produce any raw cotton, so the industry had to rely on good transport. An examination of the cotton industry shows how a number of factors combined to bring about the siting of the industry.

The increasing population provided a cheap **labour force.** From the Pennine streams came abundant water supplies for use in bleaching, dyeing and other processes. Water-power was used to drive factory machines. When steam-power replaced water-power essential coal supplies were near at hand. Even the climate played a part. The Manchester area is renowned for its heavy rainfall, and the damp atmosphere helped to stop the thread breaking while the cotton was being spun.

In the modern world different factors influence industrial location. The south-east of England is an area of great expansion because of the **pull of the market.** It is useful to have people near at hand to buy the goods. One-sixth of the population of England lives in the London conurbation and there is also the nearness to Europe and the markets of the EEC. Electric power has meant that industries do not have to be sited near coalfields because electricity can be transmitted hundreds of miles by the national grid.

Millions of workers still earn their living ir coalmining districts. Many of these areas receive government aid. The 1972 Industry Act was just one

Would you like to be a 'giblet replacer'? Bernard Matthews Ltd uses the division of labour in turkey production. How many employees can you count?

among a number of government measures, going back over forty years, intended to help these **development areas**, as they are called. The Act continued to help old industrial areas by means of financial grants and loans.

Before any new factory of more than 5,000 square feet is built an industrial development certificate must be secured from the Department of Trade and Industry. The Government influences old and new industrial locations, and it is the biggest single force in the siting of industry in modern Britain.

### TOPIC 10.3 PRODUCTION OF GOODS

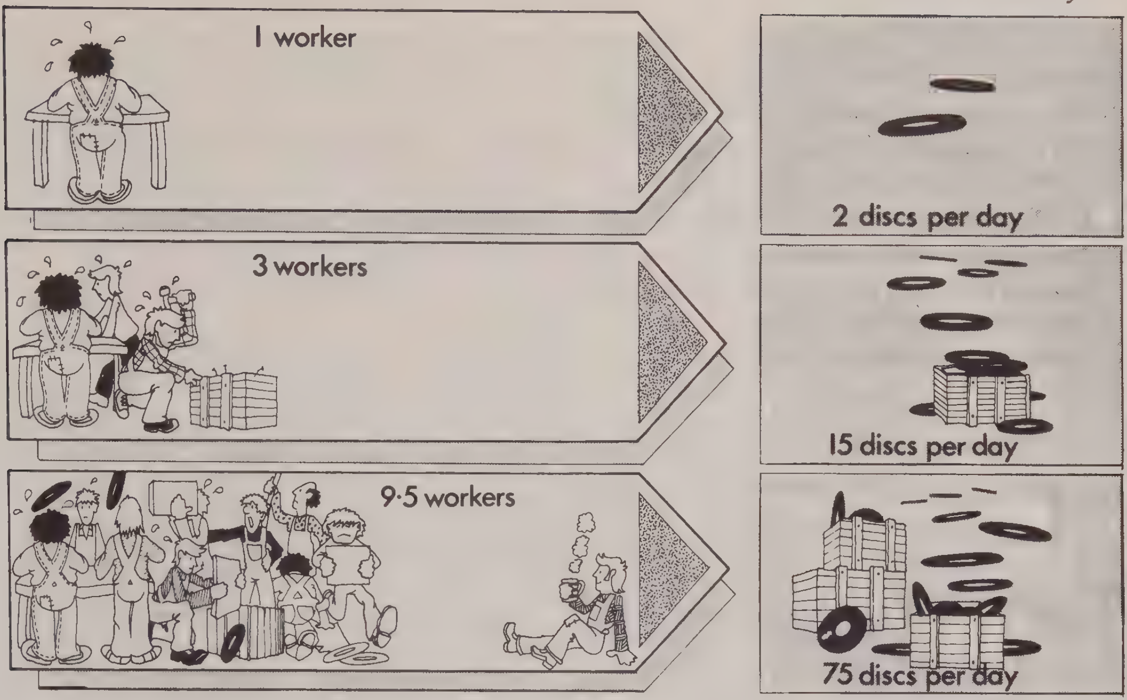
Most goods are produced in factories where a large number of people work together. If one man is working on his own he spends a lot of time putting down one tool to pick up another, and moving between different jobs. A more productive idea is to organise industry so that each worker concentrates on one task. This is called **specialisation** or the **division of labour.** A worker's task may only take a few seconds, but the article could not be produced without him. Henry Ford was one of the first successful factory owners to use the **conveyor belt system** where the work was conveyed past each employee.

Division of labour involves **mechanisation** or the use of machinery. Sometimes, however, instead of work being divided up amongst a lot of workers using different machines, the complete article is produced by one enormous machine which performs all the production processes. This is known as **automation**.

### TOPIC 10.4 AUTOMATION

The Industrial Revolution brought **large-scale production** with workers using machines to help with the work. This process has been continued by automation but the big difference is that instead of a large number of workers being employed, the work is done by an automatic machine.

Automation refers to production by electronically controlled robot machinery. Raw materials can be fed in at one end and finished articles taken out at the other end. Even the feeding in of the raw materials and the removal of the finished goods can be done automatically. We call this **integration** and it allows production to be carried on completely



The main advantage of division of labour is the increase in production

by automation.

Automation has been going on for over thirty years. In the 1950s the Soviet Union had a fully automatic plant making aluminium pistons for lorry engines. By 1960 eight men produced all the pistons for Russia's motor car industry.

Computers are an important part of automation. In a few seconds they make calculations which could take a brilliant mathematician many months. Once a computer is correctly programmed it is far more accurate than a human being.

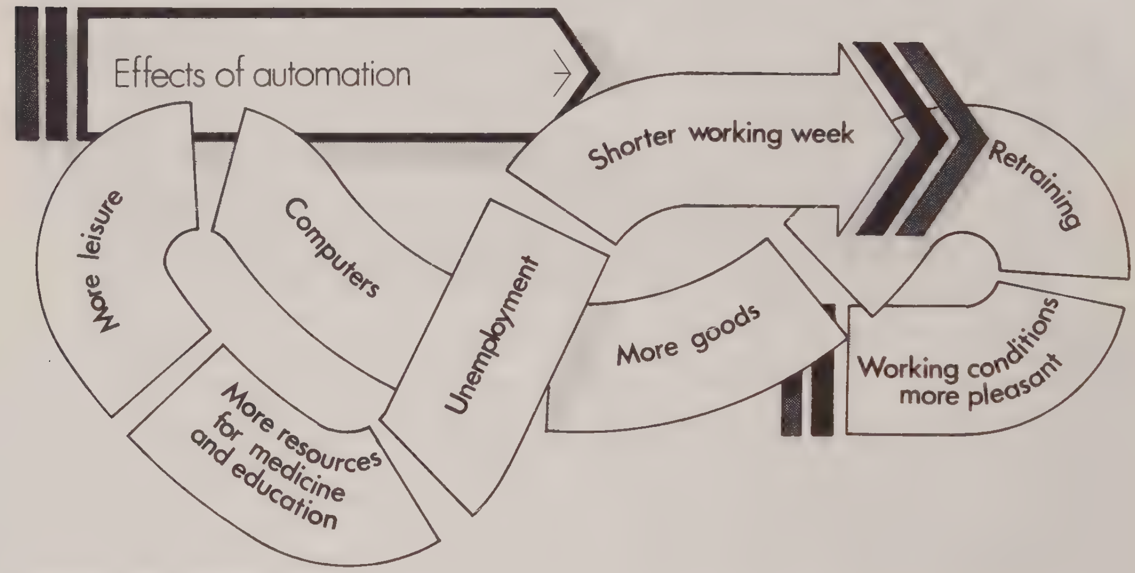
Computers are specially suitable for office work. Large computerised offices are working successfully in the Driver and Vehicle Licensing Section of the Department of the Environment at Swansea, and in the National Giro Centre at Bootle. At the Hewett School in Norwich computers are used to indicate the subject choices of third formers who will start on CSE and GCE courses during the following year.

ADVANTAGES OF DIVISION OF LABOUR

1. More goods are produced
2. It is not necessary to spend a long time training workers
3. Many workers are pleased not to have to do complicated jobs
4. Workers of limited ability can be employed
5. The large numbers employed have amenities such as works canteens, playing fields and medical treatment
6. Workers co-operate in large-scale joint production
7. Piecework rates, bonuses and other incentives keep people working hard
8. Employment can be found for more workers
9. The increased number of workers brings an increase in the demand for goods

### DISADVANTAGES OF DIVISION OF LABOUR

1. Workers become bored by repetitive tasks
2. If a bottleneck develops (e.g. through a strike of a few men or a shortage of raw materials), the whole factory will stop production
3. Craftsmanship has largely disappeared
4. Dull uniformity of things produced, e.g. standardised models of cars
5. There is a big gap between the bosses and the workers, who may never see the people who are really responsible for the factory
6. A worker feels little job-satisfaction because he does not produce anything on his own



Some effects of automation

### ADVANTAGES OF AUTOMATION

1. An increase in the production of goods
2. An improvement in the standard of living
3. Much of the drudgery taken from routine everyday work
4. Extension of the power of humans:
   (a) computers 'extend' our brains
   (b) automated telecommunications 'extend' our ears and tongues
5. More resources freed for improvements in education, medicine, etc.
6. More leisure available

Automation means that there will be less demand for labour (i.e. workers). It may be possible to prevent wholesale unemployment by offering more educational opportunities to young people (so that they stay at schools or colleges longer), or by allowing people to retire earlier (say, at fifty years of age). It would not be very surprising if the working week was cut to twenty hours.

The last point in the table is of great interest to social scientists.

Automation will bring *more* leisure, but what *sort* of leisure? We saw in Unit 9, that there are many ways of using leisure time. If people work only twenty hours a week, they will have a great deal of spare time. It may happen that only the highly qualified or **specific workers** will find work, and that the people with most extra leisure time will be those least equipped to use it properly. But what do we mean by *properly*?

Who will decide how people should use their spare time? After all, it is the time they have for themselves. Is it better to listen to classical music and go to the opera, or to play bingo and watch 'Coronation Street'? We have learnt from the beginning of this book that each person is different and deserves to be accepted as an individual human being in his or her own right.

Most of us would agree that it is better to be constructive than destructive. It is better to *do* something, than to *destroy* something. We would probably also agree that it is better to be active than passive. Those who have done both usually agree

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The world's largest concentration of slot machines in the lobby of the Sahara Hotel in Las Vegas that there is more enjoyment in spending leisure time playing games than in watching others play them.

Automation could bring problems if extra leisure periods are not used wisely and well. There will be more time available at school to teach young people how to use their leisure well. With pocket calculators readily available, it may become more important to teach pupils to appreciate music or books and art, or to perform in plays and sports, than to spend tedious hours in pursuing traditional school subjects.

If automation allows people to retire earlier they will have more time to relax and enjoy their old age.

A frightening thing about automation and leisure is the number of **synthetic amusements** people can enjoy – games devoid of skill and individualism. No doubt we have all wasted money on one-armed bandits. Perhaps we have spent hours inserting coins, flicking a handle hoping that luck, not skill, will record three cherries and reward us with a very small prize. No doubt we know in our hearts that if we go on long enough the automatic machine is bound to win. It is not called a bandit for nothing! How easily are we trapped into taking part in the unnatural mechanical sports of amusement arcades!

### DISADVANTAGES OF AUTOMATION

1. Extra leisure time may cause problems such as unrest and crime
2. Fewer people will be required for production so there will be redundancies and mass unemployment, especially among people too old to be retrained for new jobs
3. Old skilled jobs will disappear
4. It will be difficult to provide very simple jobs similar to those associated with division of labour
5. Automated processes are very costly in the first place
6. Only large monopolies can afford expensive automation equipment so small businesses may be eliminated
7. Trade unions will find it difficult to protect their members when thousands of workers are no longer required

It is difficult for an individual to display any originality in an age of mechanisation and automation. So we are witnessing a craze for **do it yourself (DIY)** furniture-making and painting. Increased leisure time could be one of the great advantages brought by automation, so long as it is used fruitfully.

## TOPIC 10.5 PROTECTING CONSUMERS

The aim of production is to make things that can be used by consumers. Years ago these things were made by one man working on his own. A tailor would specialise in making a suit and a carpenter might specialise in making furniture. If the person who bought an article found anything wrong with it, he could complain to the man who made it. If the worker valued the buyer's custom, and his own reputation as a skilled craftsman, he would put the article right or make another one.

Today production is more complicated and thousands of people can be involved in manufacturing one article. One modern car has over 40,000 parts. When there are so many things that can go wrong, and it is impossible for the purchaser to appeal to any one person, **consumer protection** is necessary. From the beginning of this book we have examined the behaviour of individuals. Sometimes behaviour becomes *group behaviour* when people join with others who feel the same way about taking a particular action; sometimes behaviour is controlled by law. There are both organisations and laws which protect the consumer.

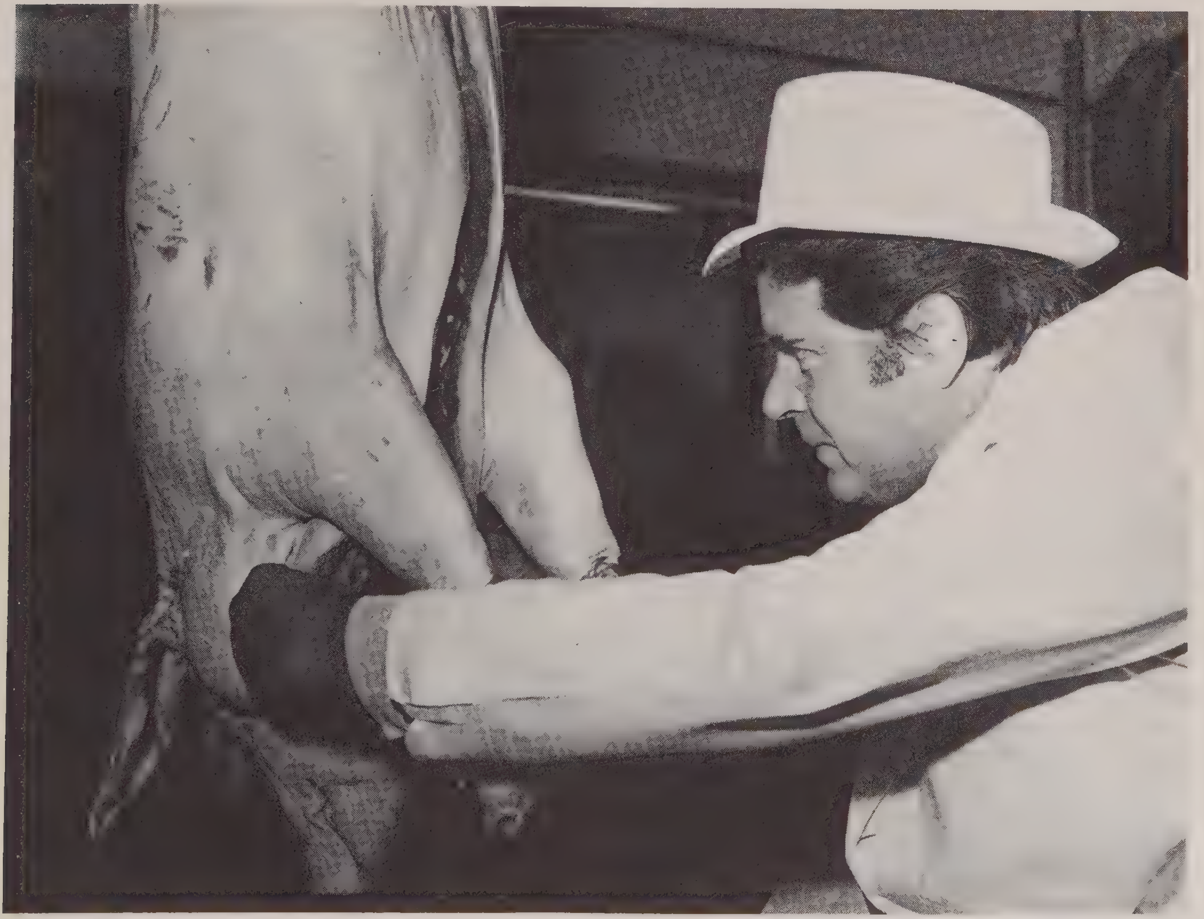
One of the first organisations to help consumers was formed in 1901. The British Standards Institution was established by Royal Charter as a voluntary non-profit-making body aimed at maintaining good standards of quality, design and performance of products. Its 4,500 committees are responsible for testing products and checking sizes of articles. For instance it is important that electric plugs should fit the sockets. The BSI has played an important part in the change-over from the old imperial system of measurements to the **metric** system.

If production has been carried out according to the standards laid down by the BSI, the product displays a 'kitemark'. See if you can discover, within the next week, at least five articles which display this mark. While you are searching you will probably find different marks indicating that products have been approved by other organisations, e.g. an approval mark can be seen on electrical equipment considered safe by the Electricity Council. If you look carefully at a gas cooker you should find a mark indicating that it accords with the specifications of the Gas Corporation. A seal of approval is awarded by the Council of Industrial Design to high-quality, well-designed work.

The Consumers' Association is a private organisation supported by members' subscriptions. Its monthly magazine, *Which?* gives detailed results of thorough tests on various products, concluding with a recommended 'best buy'.

There are three important groups of local government officers who help to protect consumers:

1. *Public health inspectors,* who examine places where food is prepared or sold and ensure that adequate hygienic standards are maintained.
2. *Inspectors of weights and measures,* who check the accuracy of scales, petrol pumps and other means of measuring goods. Since the 1963 Weights and Measures Act the quantity of all prepacked food must be stated clearly on the package, and the 1975 Unit Pricing Act states that the packet must be clearly marked according to price per unit weight, e.g. pounds or kilograms.
3. *The public analyst,* who visits food premises and checks the exact content of tins, jars and packets.



A public health inspector checks that meat is fit for human consumption

SOME ACTS OF PARLIAMENT WHICH PROTECT CONSUMERS

| *Act of Parliament* | *Date* | *Provisions* |
|---|---|---|
| Sale of Goods Act | 1893 | Protects consumers if goods do not come up to scratch |
| Food and Drugs Act | 1955 | Correct labelling of contents |
| Hire Purchase Act | 1965 | Protects people who buy on credit |
| Trades Description Act | 1968 | Prevents goods being wrongly described |
| Unsolicited Goods and Services Act | 1971 | Prevents goods being sent to people who do not want them |
| Fair Trading Act | 1973 | Director General of Fair Trading reviews unfair practices and investigates complaints |
| Supply of Goods (Implied Terms) Act | 1973 | Consumers prevented from signing away rights |
| Consumer Credit Act | 1974 | Credit organisations must reveal the true rate of interest |
| Unit Pricing Act | 1975 | Price must be shown according to recognised units |

### EXPLAIN WHAT IS MEANT BY:

industry
industrial workers
commercial workers
service workers
location of industry
raw materials
industrial inertia
means of communication
labour force
pull of the market
development areas
specialisation
division of labour
conveyor belt system
mechanisation
automation
large-scale production
integration
specific workers
synthetic amusements
do-it-yourself (DIY)
consumer protection

### A CASE STUDY FROM LONG AGO: FEET OF CLAY

Once upon a time there lived a very wise old man. He was called a sage. This man was so clever that he made a machine which could make real live men from clay.

These little people worked for the sage and he ordered them to produce a large quantity of goods. They constructed dams to supply power and transported goods all over the country so that the people shared in the new wealth.

The country became rich and the king commanded the sage to make more of these men from clay. Soon nobody had to work. But still the people grumbled and clamoured for the sage to make more slaves from clay.

These man-made workers laboured very quickly, but they also grew very quickly, and the sage found it difficult to keep them under control. When they reached the height of average men the sage wrote *dead* on their foreheads and they died.

When the people of the country kept demanding more slaves, it became impossible for the sage to get round to all of his creations and write *dead* on their foreheads. One day he discovered that some of the slaves had grown so fast, and had become so tall, that he could not reach their foreheads to write *dead*.

The workers made from clay refused to work. They were out of control.

Eventually, one of the slaves grew so strong that he rebelled and killed the sage. The rest of the people in the country were very frightened but had no idea what to do. In the end the man-made workers killed all the greedy people and took over the country for themselves.

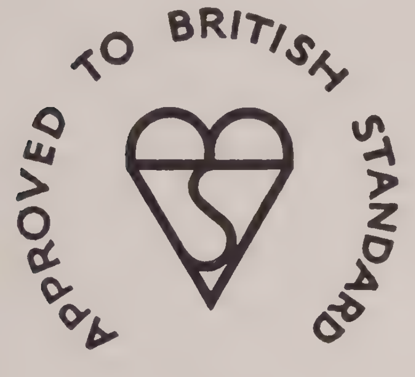
1. In what ways might automation take over from human beings?
2. Why do some experts argue that computers can only do what they are programmed to do?
3. Is it possible for a computer to beat an expert at a game of chess?
4. What are the dangers to mankind of using computers to control ballistic missiles with nuclear warheads?

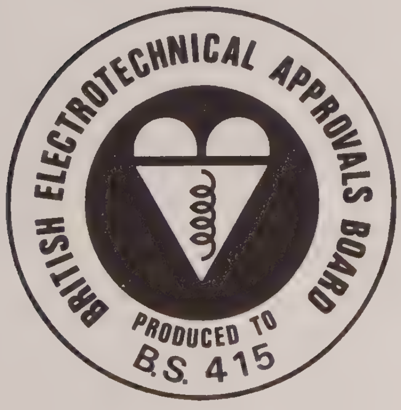
### FOLLOW-UP

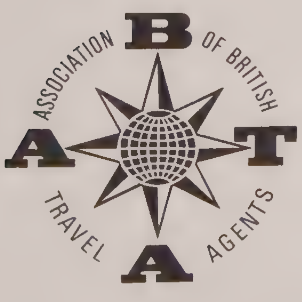
1. Copy out the following table and add to it.

| *Industrial workers* | *Commercial workers* | *Service workers* |
|---|---|---|
| fitter | insurance agent | laundrette assistant |

2. Give one advantage and one disadvantage of the following:
   (a) piece-work
   (b) overtime
   (c) night work
   (d) assembly-line work
3. Prepare a script for an interview between an employer and a prospective employee.
4. The following are approval marks of consumer protection organisations or trade associations. What protection do you think they give?







5. What protection is offered by the following?
   (a) Weights and Measures departments
   (b) Consumers' Consultative Councils
   (c) Public Health departments
   (d) Race Relations Board
   (e) Housing aid centres

ACTIVITIES

1. Visit a factory in your area and give reasons why it is sited there.
2. Draw a cartoon strip illustrating how the division of labour might be used to make one of the following:
   (a) a pencil
   (b) a match
   (c) a cigarette
3. Many interesting stories are told of computers that go wrong, e.g. the teacher who was paid £600,000 pension one month instead of £60. Collect some examples for yourself. Ask parents, relations and friends. How can the use of computers be justified?
4. Design a job advertisement including the following:
   (a) type of work
   (b) name and address of firm
   (c) pay (including overtime)
   (d) hours and conditions of work
   (e) prospects
5. Collect press cuttings of recent examples of automation and sort them into these groups:
   (a) primary work
   (b) manufacturing work
   (c) commercial work
   (d) service trades

CSE QUESTIONS

1. If a large firm wants to open a new factory, what factors would influence the location of that factory?
   (East Midland Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
2. What are the advantages and disadvantages of mass production and division of labour?
   (East Midland Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
3. (a) Explain the meaning of the terms:
      (i) mechanisation
      (ii) automation
   (b) Write about *three* possible social effects of automation.

(East Anglian Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)

4. (a) Describe how the Trade Descriptions Act protects the public.

   (b) Write about the work of an association which protects the consumer.

(Metropolitan Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)

# Unit 11 *THE BRITISH ECONOMY*

## TOPIC 11.1 WHAT IS THE ECONOMY?

The word **economy** was originally used to mean the administration and organisation of households. Your household is probably made up of your mother, father, brothers or sisters and yourself. You all need certain things, e.g. beds and chairs. In addition, each member of the household has individual wants. A young man may want a motor bike, while a young woman may want cosmetics. A need is not quite the same as a want. We all *need* food and drink. We *want* lots of other things such as records and clothes in the latest fashion, although we can get by without them.

There are many different types of organisation that supply things to households. Just look around your area. There are small firms run by one person and there are larger organisations owned by a group of people. These large firms may be private companies like the General Electric Company or nationalised corporations like the Post Office.

A modern use of the term economy applies to the administration and organisation of the community. Communal needs arise from the demands of all households. We are going to examine two types of economic organisation supplying the needs of the community:

1. private businesses
2. nationalised industries.

Within these categories there are:

(a) big and small concerns
(b) organisations representing employers and employees
(c) producers for the home market or overseas markets
(d) firms specialising in production or distribution.

## TOPIC 11.2 PRIVATE BUSINESS

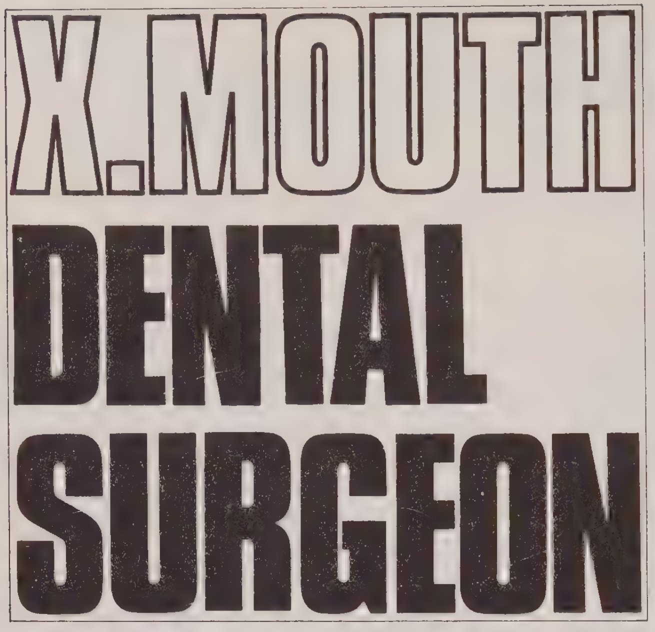
The **private sector** of the economy includes both the shop at the street corner and the largest firm in the country. About 75 per cent of the British economy is still privately owned. Who are the owners?

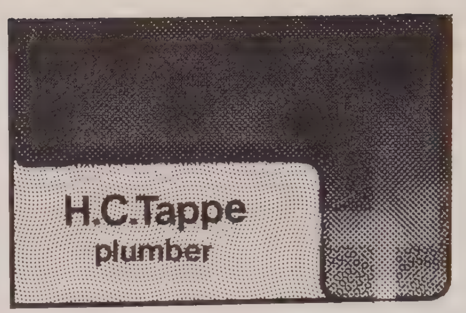
1. The **sole proprietor** owns his business. As the owner he does the main organising, takes the risks and profits, but has to bear any losses. The one-man business is found mostly at the distribution end of the production chain. He is a most important link because the whole purpose of production is to supply consumers. The small shopkeeper is vital to the economy, for without him goods would not reach consumers. According to the 1971 **census of distribution,** 83 per cent of all shops were single units owned by independent people as distinct from firms with lots of branches. There are still hundreds of thousands of successful one-man businesses, especially in the retail and service trades.
2. **Partnerships** are formed when several people combine to run a business. They have two big advantages over sole proprietors:
   (a) more capital (money)
   (b) greater expertise – partners specialise in different things.

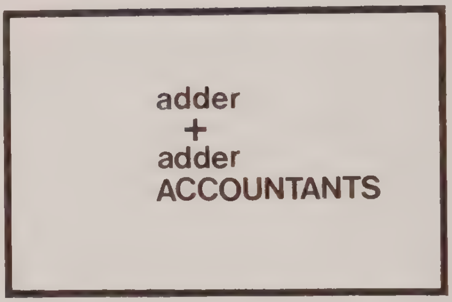
   Next time you walk through the streets of your town have a look at the nameplates of business partnerships. This will help you to remember the types of business which are organised as partnerships.

   A partnership is a convenient arrangement for doctors and dentists because it is necessary to have one partner available in times of emergency. It is also very convenient for a firm of solicitors to have partners who are experienced in conveyancing (handling the deeds connected with property deals), while other partners are experts at representing clients in courts of law.
3. **Companies** are the largest form of private business organisation. Large **public companies** are owned by many **investors** or **shareholders** who have bought shares in the companies.

Large-scale production requires far more capital than could possibly be supplied by one man or a partnership. British Petroleum is a huge oil



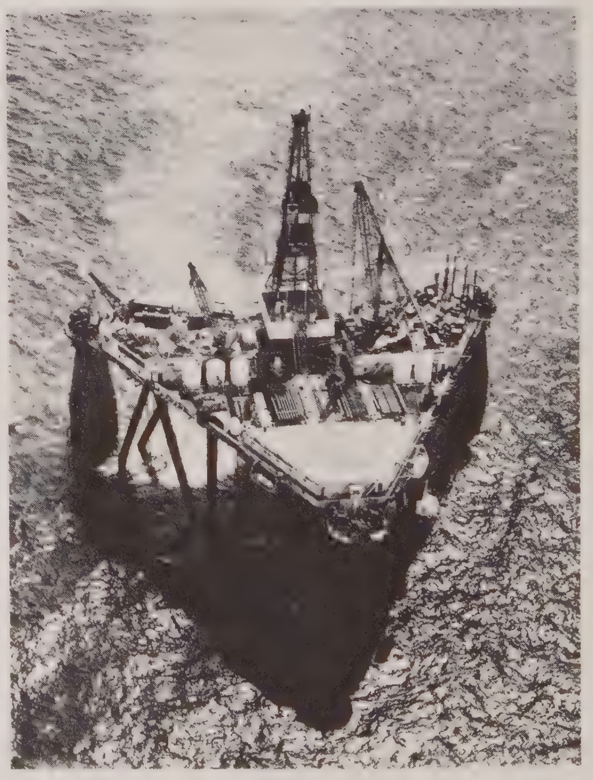




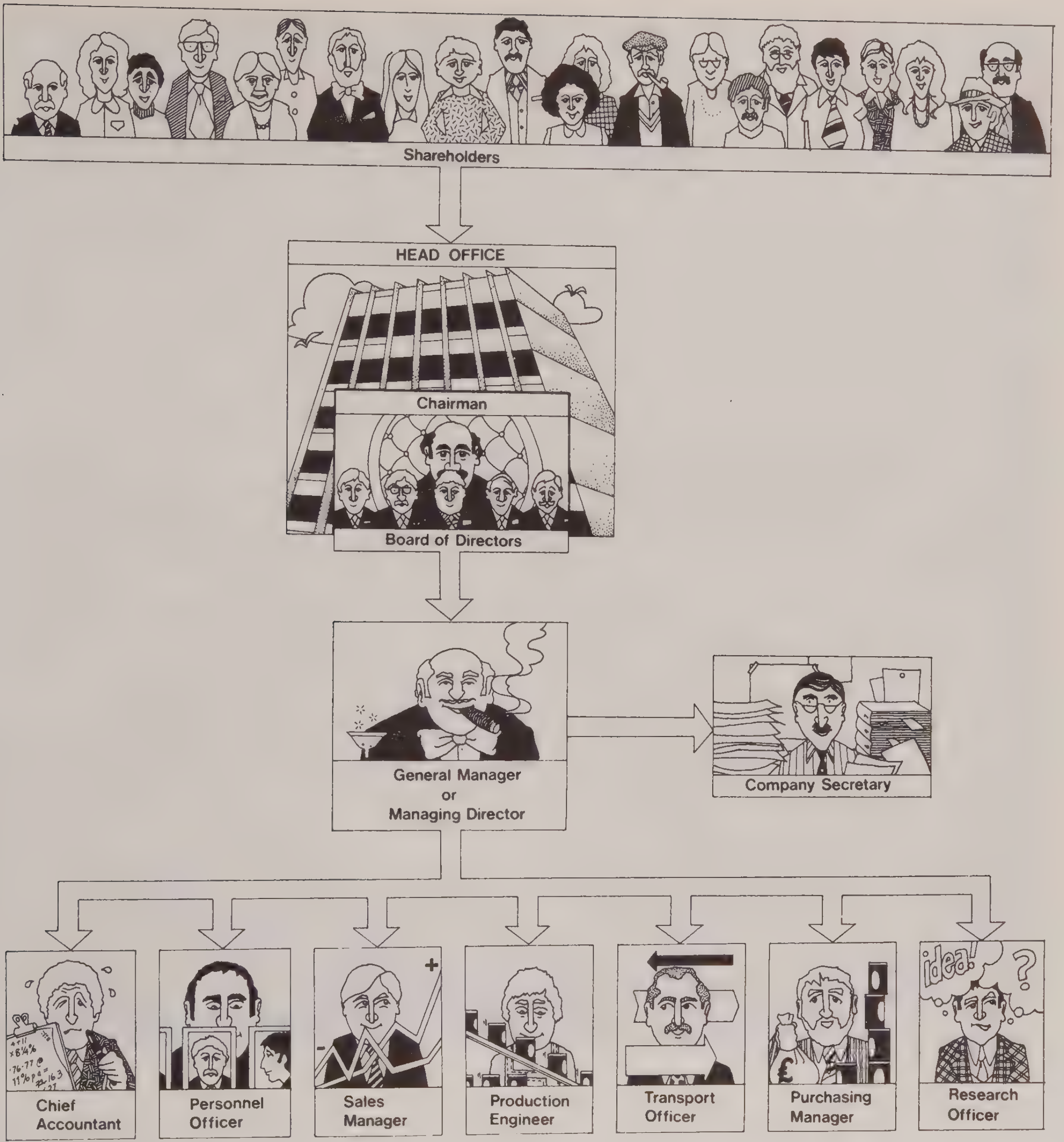
company while ICI makes hundreds of different products based upon chemicals.

These public companies concentrate mainly on production but they are also engaged in storing and selling their products. You will have seen petrol pumps bearing the brand signs of BP and Shell. Even Marks & Spencer does not just own department stores. The goods it sells under the brand names of St Michael or St Margaret are made in factories supervised and checked by the company.

How is a company organised? There is an annual meeting of shareholders which elects a **board of directors.** Shareholders vote according to the value of the shares they own. Those with most shares have the biggest say in running the company. Only a few shareholders attend the annual meeting, so directors are appointed by those with the greatest interest. These are likely to be the largest shareholders. If you were a company director you would be expected to attend meetings of the board. A *company chairman* is appointed by the board, and he is the most important man in the company. Being a company director may not be a full-time job and many businessmen are directors of several companies. A full-time *managing director* or general manager is appointed to look after the day-to-day running of the business. He will co-ordinate the various activities of the company.



A British Petroleum oil rig


Shareholders
HEAD OFFICE
Chairman
Board of Directors
General Manager
or
Managing Director
Company Secretary
Chief Accountant
Personnel Officer
Sales Manager
Production Engineer
Transport Officer
Purchasing Manager
Research Officer
idea!
?

Company organisation

A *chief accountant* will be appointed to supervise the financial side. He has the responsible job of seeing that the company's money is spent carefully, books are properly kept and the accounts are balanced. The *personnel officer* is in charge of the appointment of staff, their general welfare, working conditions and problems that arise at work. He may have to deal with trade union officials representing the workers. The *sales manager* is in charge of marketing, including advertising and selling the product. A public company invites the general public to invest in its business by selling shares on the *stock exchange*. Anybody can buy shares in a public company if he has the money. Many investors buy and sell shares through their bank, although the bank will have to contact a *stockbroker*.

The Stock Exchange

Imagine you owned shares in a public company and wanted to sell them. You could go direct to a firm of stockbrokers or contact your bank manager who would pass on your instructions to a broker. Look at the photograph of the trading floor of the Stock Exchange. It seems a muddle, but the broker knows his way about. There are sections specialising in shipping, breweries, oil shares, etc.

Let us assume that you have 100 shares in Euro Ferries, which is a company transporting people and goods across the English Channel. Perhaps you bought them in May 1975 when the price was 50 pence a share. It cost you £50 at the time, plus £4 broker's fee. It is the broker's task to secure the best possible deal for you as his client. The broker contacts a *jobber* who buys and sells shares. The jobber quotes two prices – a buying price and a selling price. The latest Euro Ferries price might be 130 pence for buying and 132 pence for selling. The difference in the two prices is known as the jobber's turn. It is his profit. If this is the most favourable quotation the stockbroker can obtain, he will make a deal and the jobber will buy your shares at 130 pence each or £130 total. Even after paying the broker's commission you will have made a profit. But investing on the Stock Market does not always pay. If share prices fall investors may make a loss. Even if they make a profit there will be capital gains tax to pay.

There is far more money invested in public companies in Britain than in any other form of economic organisation.

There are only about 15,000 public companies compared with over 500,000 private companies. Private companies are usually small family concerns. The maximum number of members or shareholders is fifty. The shares of private companies are not sold on the Stock Exchange. Have you ever seen the abbreviation 'Ltd' after the name of a firm? It means 'limited liability company'. Both private and public companies enjoy **limited liability.** This means that if you invest £50 in a company your liability is limited to the sum of £50. If the firm goes bankrupt you only lose £50. That may seem a lot, but before the Limited Liability Acts of 1855–6, shareholders in a company that went into liquidation could be made to sell their property to pay the debts of the company. In those days it was not unknown for unlucky investors to have to sell their furniture to help pay off the company's debts.

## TOPIC 11.3 NATIONALISED INDUSTRIES

A **nationalised industry** is owned by the state. About a quarter of the British economy is now under state control and included in what is called the **public sector** of the economy. The word 'nationalisation' was originally used to indicate the transfer to state ownership of a privately owned industry. In recent years an industry such as the Post Office, which has always been organised by

### FUNCTIONS OF THE STOCK EXCHANGE

1. *Primary market:* Enables companies and governments to raise money (to expand businesses etc.). As a result
   (a) employment is created for workers
   (b) institutions such as insurance companies and trade unions are encouraged to invest their spare cash in industry
2. *Secondary market:* Offers a market-place for people who want to buy or sell shares

the state, has been said to be nationalised because it has been placed under a public corporation and is no longer run by civil servants. Postal services were nationalised by an Act of 1969 and a separate board was appointed to run the organisation as a state industry. Previously the Post Office had been directly controlled by a cabinet minister known as the Postmaster-General. Since 1969 the Post Office Board has been responsible for the day-to-day running of the business. There is an annual parliamentary debate about the Post Office, just as there are debates about the accounts of all the nationalised industries, but MPs are not entitled to ask questions about the detailed running of any nationalised industry. Anybody who has complaints about a nationalised industry must contact the *consumers' consultative council* for that industry.

In any mixed economy, where some industries are privately owned and some are publicly owned, it is important that the state should be responsible for the **basic industries** on which other industries depend. The government aims to exercise control over the economy by planning these essential industries. It tries to ensure that there is sufficient money to provide modern equipment. Since 1945 most *key industries* in the British economy have been nationalised. The citizens of the country own these industries collectively. The owners of industries that are nationalised are compensated according to the value of the shares owned.

The responsibility for nationalised industries lies with Parliament but everyday organisation is undertaken by a board. The appropriate minister appoints the chairman and members of the board. For instance, the Post Office Board is appointed by the Minister of Posts and Telecommunications. In recent years there has been some **backdoor nationalisation.** The 1975 Industry Act set up a National Enterprise Board enabling the state to play a greater part in the industrial control and organisation of a company when it lent money or bought shares in the business.

GOLF
£7
£7
£10
TURNER

'When I said I wanted to buy a golf club, I had St Andrews, Scotland, in mind. . . .'

INDUSTRIES NATIONALISED SINCE 1945

| *Industry* | *Authority* |
|---|---|
| Coal | National Coal Board |
| Electricity | Electricity Council |
| Gas | Gas Corporation |
| Railways | British Railways Board |
| Civil Aviation | British Airways |
| Steel | British Steel Corporation |
| Post Office | Post Office Board |
| Central Bank | Bank of England Court |
| Oil | British National Oil Corporation |
| Aircraft | British Aerospace |
| Shipbuilding | British Shipbuilders |

One of the problems of a mixed economy is the proportion of the mixture. Should the state control 20 per cent, 25 per cent or 50 per cent? If we had a communist state, like the People's Republic of China or the Soviet Union, the government would control almost all the economy. In these countries some property is still owned by individual members of the community. The co-operative principle is used on the collective farms and communes, but a communist would still wish to have his own toothbrush. Capitalism and communism are forms of economic organisation.

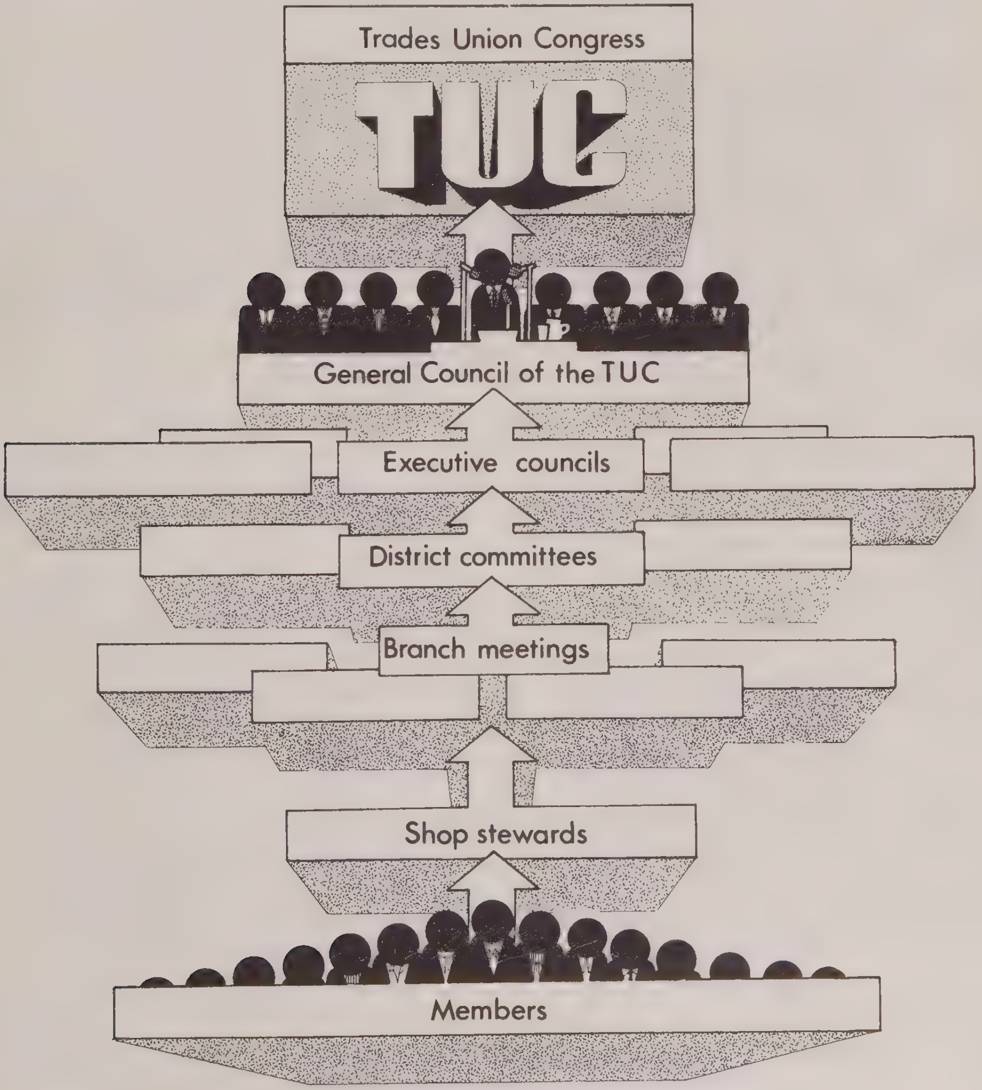
An interesting development since 1975 has been the establishment in Britain of **workers' co-operatives.** In a few cases when the organisers of a firm have been unable to carry on running the business, the workers at the plant have taken on the job themselves. The first thing they need is the money to purchase the business and for day-to-day expenses such as buying raw materials and paying their own wages. On the assumption that people work hard when they are personally involved in an enterprise, observers are watching with interest to see whether workers' co-operatives are a success in Britain. The first two workers' co-operatives were started in March 1975:

1. £5 million was allotted by the Department of Industry to the workers at the Norton–Triumph–Villiers motor-cycle factory.
2. With government support a similar workers' co-operative was established to run the *Scottish Daily News*, formerly owned by Beaverbrook Newspapers Ltd.

## TOPIC 11.4 TRADE UNIONS

NATIONALISATION ARGUMENTS

| *In favour* | *Against* |
|---|---|
| 1. State ownership of basic industries allows proper planning of the economy | 1. Nationalisation restricts the working of competition throughout the economy |
| 2. Government money is necessary to modernise industrial equipment | 2. Nationalised organisations are very large and bureaucratic with too much red tape |
| 3. Nationalised industries can co-operate easily in international schemes | 3. Subsidies (amounting to over £1,000 million in 1975) are paid to nationalised industries |
| 4. Some industries are better organised on a national basis, e.g. railways, Post Office, gas and electric super-grids | 4. Local feelings may be overridden in the interests of national schemes |


Trades Union Congress
TUC
General Council of the TUC
Executive councils
District committees
Branch meetings
Shop stewards
Members

Trade union organisation

## TRADE UNION AIMS

1. Good wages so that workers have a high standard of living
2. Reasonable hours of work with sufficient holidays
3. More pay for overtime and piecework
4. Benefits for members who are sick, retired or on strike
5. Educational schemes, especially for apprentices
6. Control of the supply of labour to maintain employment
7. Political action in support of causes in which the union believes
8. To give working people a voice on national bodies such as the National Economic and Development Council (NEDC)
9. Combination with other trade unions
10. Participation in talks on the economy with the government and employers

## TYPES OF UNION

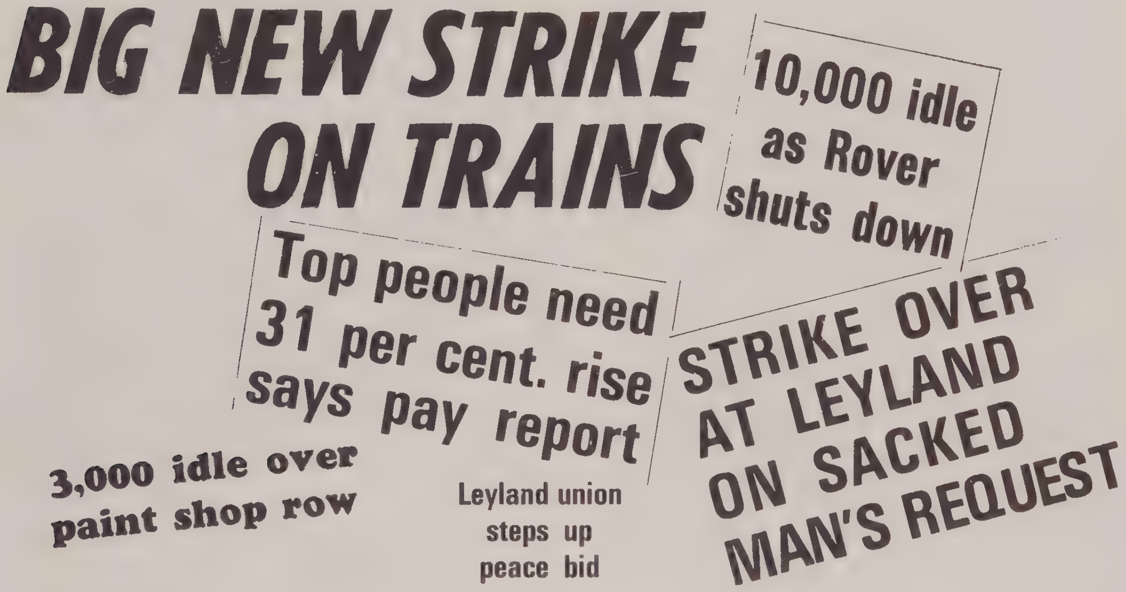
| | |
|---|---|
| *Craft unions* | Small unions of skilled men guard the interests of a particular craft, e.g. woodworkers, plumbers, musicians and locomotive drivers |
| *Industrial unions* | Represent all the workers in one industry, irrespective of their job, e.g. on the railways (National Union of Railwaymen), down the mines (National Union of Miners), and on the farms (National Union of Agricultural and Allied Workers) |
| *General unions* | Largest unions speaking for a variety of workers both skilled and unskilled, e.g. the General and Municipal Workers' Union. They have large funds and a diversity of interests |
| *White-collar unions* | Workers on the staff side are represented by such unions as the Association of Scientific, Technical and Managerial Staffs |

## TRADE UNION PRESSURES

| *Method* | *Actions* |
|---|---|
| *Work to rule* | Work is carried out in accordance with every minor rule, e.g. a railway guard might personally check that the door of each carriage was firmly shut. If this is done at every station, the service will be reduced to chaos |
| *Go slow* | Workers will take their time, e.g. a postman could put letters through your postbox one at a time. The postal service may almost grind to a halt and the industry lose more money |
| *Closed shop* | Workers will only work with fellow trade unionists. The closed shop principle has been strengthened by the 1975 Trade Union and Labour Relations Act |
| *Demarcation dispute* | It is insisted that only a trained worker will do a job that could be done by another, e.g. a dispute at British Leyland in 1975 arose because two electricians insisted that it was not their job to press a certain button. (See case study) |
| *Strike* | If wage negotiations break down completely, trade unions will withdraw their labour |
| *Picketing* | Strikers' representatives dissuade employees who do not wish to strike |

So far in this unit we have looked at economic organisations without considering the workers. Employees have their organisations too, the **trade unions.** Trade unions are associations of workpeople who join together to look after their common interests. Nowadays the majority of people work for large organisations and they feel the need to combine in strength to see that they get a square deal.

Do you think trade unions are too powerful? Perhaps trade unions do have too much say in a modern community, but remember that before trade unions became so powerful working people were very badly off indeed. Ask your parents or grandparents about the conditions that prevailed in the years between the world wars, or do some individual research in your library on the General Strike of 1926.



BIG NEW STRIKE ON TRAINS

10,000 idle as Rover shuts down

Top people need 31 per cent. rise says pay report

STRIKE OVER AT LEYLAND ON SACKED MAN'S REQUEST

3,000 idle over paint shop row

Leyland union steps up peace bid

There are different kinds of industries within the economy and there are also different types of trade union. There are large unions such as the Transport and General Workers' Union with $1\frac{3}{4}$ million members, and tiny unions such as the Jewish Bakers with about a dozen members. Nearly half the workers in the country belong to a trade union. About 400 unions represent over 11 million workers.

The **Trades Union Congress** is the annual meeting of the trade union movement. All the main unions are associate members of the TUC and send a number of delegates to Congress according to the size of their membership. Congress takes place in September each year, usually at some large seaside resort where there are hotels vacated by holidaymakers. It lasts for a week and discusses important topical questions affecting the British economy. A **General Council of the TUC** is elected to carry on the work throughout the year.

Although the TUC discusses all sorts of social, political and economic questions such as the Common Market and inflation, the real purpose of a trade union is to secure better wages and working conditions. To do this the unions carry out **collective bargaining** and negotiate with employers. It is not surprising that opposing interests result in clashes. The union wants to secure as high a wage as possible for its members and the employers want to hire workers as cheaply as possible. This means that at the beginning of wage talks there is likely to be a gap between the two sides. Employers' and employees' interests have to be brought together because both sides will prosper only if the economy runs smoothly.

A trade union will work out its wage claim bearing in mind such things as inflation (rising prices), increased productivity, the economic situation and whether or not employers can afford to pay. If employers continue to reject the unions' claims there are weapons which the unions can use to bring pressure to bear.

There is a great need to improve **industrial relations** in Britain. When trade unions take industrial action they are accused of holding the community to ransom over a matter which could easily have been settled sensibly. Both sides of industry are to blame in stubbornly refusing to use the instruments of conciliation and **arbitration** whereby an independent third party is asked to give a judgement. In the end disputes are settled by talking rather than by strikes of workers or lockouts by employers.

The 1971 *Industrial Relations Act* was a failure. The policy of fining or imprisoning trade unionists who went on strike resulted in a worsening of industrial relations. In 1972, 24 million workdays were lost through strikes and this was the worst record of any year since the General Strike of 1926. It is vital for wage increases to be kept within certain guidelines; if earnings went on increasing more than prices the community would suffer from such a high rate of inflation that the economy would collapse. But that is the story of our next unit.

### EXPLAIN WHAT IS MEANT BY:

economy
private sector
sole proprietor
census of distribution
partnerships
companies
public companies
investors
shareholders
board of directors
limited liability
nationalised industry
public sector
basic industries
backdoor nationalisation
workers' co-operatives
trade unions
Trades Union Congress
General Council of the TUC
collective bargaining
industrial relations
arbitration

### CASE STUDY: WHOSE FAULT?

British Leyland is the largest British-owned car company, but its productivity is probably lower than that of any car manufacturer in the world. The average number of cars manufactured per man in 1974 was 6, compared with 23 by one Japanese company and 15 by Renault in France.

British Leyland's problems have been threefold:

1. Insufficient investment in up-to-date machinery.
2. Bad management which was criticised by the Ryder Report in 1975.
3. A number of strikes which caused a loss of 70 million man hours from 1970 to 1975.

In 1975 the Labour Government decided to take control of British Leyland by buying the company's shares at 10p each. As the Stock Exchange price was 7p, most shareholders accepted the deal even though many had bought their shares at a far higher price some years before.

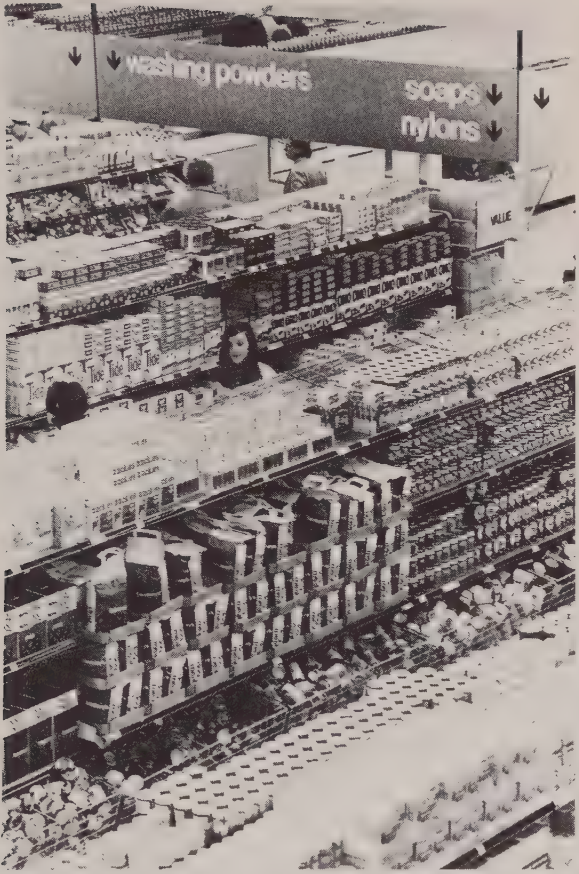
In better days, too little profit had been ploughed back. The best paint shop at the Cowley assembly plant was 17 years old, and two others were 30 and 38 years old. More than half the cars which went through the old paint shop had to be done again. Brown sticky paper was put on parts with a reasonable finish so that they were not spoiled the second time round.

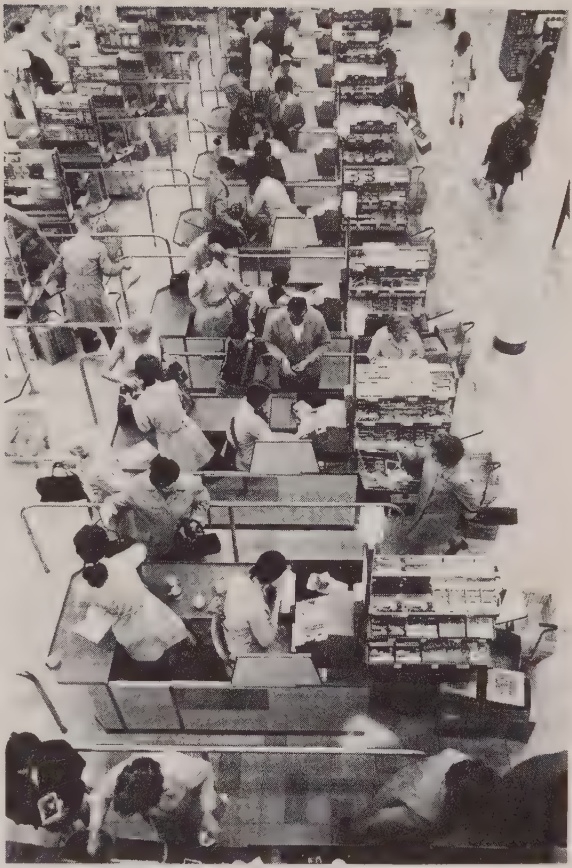
It was common for the mass media to blame British Leyland's problems on industrial unrest, but this was not the only reason for the firm's troubles. However, it is easy to see how strikes start and how workers get the blame. In February 1975, two Leyland electricians were on maintenance work. It was their job to take care of the electrical equipment, but not to take part in production. When they were told to press a button to start the production line, they refused. A child of four could have pressed the button, but the electricians said it was not their job, and according to the 'rules' they were right. British Leyland refused to pay them. The next day 110 other electricians went on strike because the two men were not paid. By noon the whole of the Cowley work force of nearly 20,000 men was idle.

1. What is the name given to this sort of dispute? Find some examples in the newspapers.
2. The following are ways of settling such disputes. Rearrange them with the most efficient at the top.
   (a) Train *all* workers to do *all* jobs
   (b) Forbid strike action until arbitration has taken place
   (c) Have interchangeability between some jobs
   (d) Make all car workers belong to one union
3. How should the management of nationalised concerns be selected?
4. List ways by which the government can make firms 'plough back' more of their profits to buy modern machinery.

### FOLLOW-UP

1. Tabulate the following under *needs* and *wants*:
   (a) food
   (b) TV set
   (c) camera
   (d) house
   (e) cigarettes
   (f) water
   (g) clothing
   (h) radio
2. What are the full names of these large joint stock companies?
   (a) EMI





(b) GEC
(c) ICI
(d) ICL
(e) M & S

3. (a) Roughly how many different types of goods can you count in the left-hand picture?
   (b) How many people are there in the right-hand picture? How many are workers? How many are shoppers?
4. (a) Give some reasons why miners might be considered a 'special case' for a pay rise.
   (b) What differentials, if any, do you think should exist between:
      (i) coalface workers
      (ii) other underground workers
      (iii) surface workers?
5. Write a *defence* of one of the following:
   (a) arbitration
   (b) closed shop
   (c) collective bargaining
   (d) picketing
   (e) working to rule

ACTIVITIES

1. Make a survey of your local town centre noting the work done by five different types of partnership. List five companies in your town which are *private* and five which are *public*.
2. Use reference books to find the particular advantages of
   (a) ordinary shares
   (b) preference shares
   (c) debentures
3. The first issue of the *Scottish Daily News* was published on 5 May 1975. What has happened to the paper since?
4. Consult the Stock Exchange prices in a newspaper and note the share prices of Euro Ferries over a period of one month. Try to account for any ups and downs.

5. List trade unions with offices in your area. You will find their names in the yellow pages of the telephone directory.

## CSE QUESTIONS

1. There are many types of firms and industries in the UK. Some are small and some are very large.
   (a) What is a one-man business?
   (b) What is a partnership?
   (c) What is a public company?
   (d) What is a nationalised industry?
   (East Midland Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
2. Within any firm many people have special responsibilities. What sort of work do the following people do?
   (a) Director
   (b) Sales Manager
   (c) Personnel Manager
   (d) Chief Accountant
   (East Midland Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
3. If you owned shares in a public limited company and wanted to sell them, show how you might do this. Mention the work of the broker and the jobber.
   (East Midland Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
4. Write about *four* reasons why different occupations attract different rates of pay.
   (East Anglian Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
5. Britain has a strong trade union movement, which has a complex organisation.
   (a) What is the TUC?
   (b) What are craft unions?
   (c) What are general unions?
   (d) What are industrial unions?
   (East Midland Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
6. A trade union has a variety of weapons it can use to try to persuade employers to agree to wage claims. Explain how the following methods operate:
   (a) Work to rule
   (b) Go slow
   (c) Strike
   (d) Picketing
   (East Midland Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)

# Unit 12 *MONEY*

## TOPIC 12.1 WHY IS MONEY SO IMPORTANT?

To ask why money is important may seem a silly question. You would probably answer, 'We must have money to buy things.' Yet man could exist without money. Primitive peoples managed without money by using a system of **barter** whereby they exchanged surplus goods.

In a complicated industrial community there are thousands of goods and we could not waste our time on lengthy swapping expeditions. Besides, most people do not make anything they could swap. We have seen that the 25 million working people of Britain are engaged in *joint* productive efforts. Those who work with others to produce motor cars are not able to take a few at the end of the week and barter them for all the things they want.

A man can only live without money in two circumstances, and in both of these life would be very limited indeed:

1. If he were self-sufficient and was content to survive on goods he produced himself.
2. If he were part of a small primitive community where there were very few goods.

People who live in an advanced community demand sophisticated goods and services which are produced by complicated industrial techniques. Producers need money to purchase raw materials and pay wages. Workers require money to buy the goods produced. So workers sell their labour for money and use the money to buy the goods. Money is the oil which lubricates the economy and keeps it running smoothly. A complicated industrial economy could not exist without it.

Ordinary citizens need money to make their purchases and pay their bills. Business organisations require money or capital so that production can be carried on. Workers want to be paid their wages in money and not in goods. The government collects its taxes in the form of money so that it can pay for services provided for the community. Welfare services cannot be provided without money. Finally, there must be sufficient money in the form of foreign exchange so that we can participate in international trade and balance our payments. In this unit we shall look at these different aspects of the use of money.

Prices are expressed in terms of money. We say that one thing is worth a certain amount of money, while another thing is valued at a different sum. In a barter economy values would be expressed in terms of goods. How many sheep for a horse? If the sheep were in good condition, perhaps four sheep would be a reasonable exchange. What could be bought for two sheep? Perhaps half a horse? Which half? And what if one of the sheep was worth less because it was thin and mangy? Life is much easier with money. The three important **money functions** are shown in the table below.

FUNCTIONS OF MONEY

*Measure of value* – one pound note is worth as much as another

*Medium of exchange* – money can be changed for goods without people haggling

*Store of wealth* – it is possible to save money and use it later

## TOPIC 12.2 THE MONEY SUPPLY

Politicians frequently talk about the importance of the **money supply**. Some people, known as *monetarists*, think that the sharply rising prices of recent years have been caused simply by a great increase in the supply of money. So we must examine where money comes from. The money supply may be divided into three parts:

1. *Coins* worth about £500 million circulate throughout the economy. They are used mainly for small transactions. These coins are made by the *Royal Mint* at Llantrisant in Wales. Since decimalisation in 1971 there have been six coins in general circulation. What are they?

This machine, at the Royal Mint, rejects any blanks which are not of the exact size

2. *Notes* are printed mainly by the *Bank of England* although there are notes issued by banks in Scotland and Northern Ireland. About £8,000 million worth of British currency is in the form of notes.
3. *Bank money* is the most important part of the money supply. By 'bank money' we mean money held by financial institutions. This money can be used to buy goods in the same way as you use coins or notes. A person who has an account at a bank can write a cheque which the bank will honour. A **cheque** is not money but serves as money because it is a claim upon money in a bank. Cheques are not legal tender and creditors may refuse them, but it is customary for cheques to be accepted, especially when backed by a *banker's cheque card*, which provides evidence of the reliability of the person presenting the cheque.

Although the value of the notes and coins in circulation amounts to about £7,500 million (1978), the six **clearing banks** have deposits of over £60,000 million. This strange state of affairs is made possible because banks have learnt from experience that about 90 per cent of their deposits will not be drawn out in cash. There are two main ways in which banks create **credit** and subsequently increase the money supply:

1. By *loans*. Banks lend money for a certain period, e.g. they might lend a garage proprietor £10,000 to extend his business.
2. By *overdrafts*. This is an arrangement allowing a customer to overdraw (i.e. spend more than he has in his account).

Banks charge interest on loans and overdrafts; whether money is borrowed in the form of a loan or an overdraft depends on the circumstances of each case. If a person wanted to borrow £1,000 to buy a car the bank would probably suggest a loan to be paid back over two years, say at about £50 a month to cover the principal (£1,000) and interest charges. The bank would want the borrower to start paying something back each month as evidence of his intention to repay the sum within the specified period.

Cheques are an easy and safe way of making payments. A *crossed cheque* is crossed with two parallel lines and is safer than an *uncrossed cheque*

Who is the Old Lady of Threadneedle Street?

because it must be passed through a bank account. A *credit transfer* allows an individual to settle a *number* of bills with *one* payment.

The increase in the quantity of bank money is one of the greatest problems facing the economy. The use of *credit cards* increases the danger of having too much money chasing too few goods. The six main clearing banks issue credit cards to those whom they consider to be creditworthy. An individual possessing an Access card or Barclaycard has a credit limit placed upon him, e.g. £200. You will have seen shops displaying signs indicating that they are willing to accept certain credit cards. Three sections of the community gain by credit cards:

1. Companies issuing credit cards charge shopkeepers a commission, e.g. if the article sold costs £20, the credit card company will gain £1 if it charges 5 per cent.
2. Shopkeepers attract customers who would not purchase articles at that time if they had to pay cash.
3. Shoppers benefit because they can purchase goods now and pay later.

As long as the credit card holder pays in the time allowed, he will not be charged any interest.

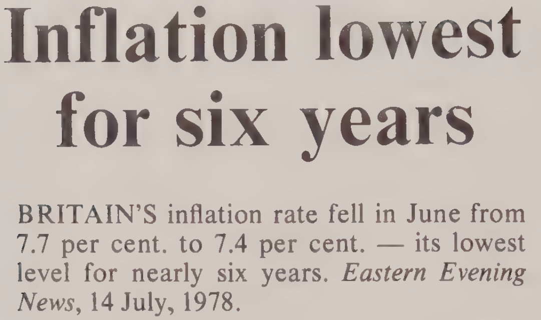
But there are dangers attached to credit cards:

1. Shoppers may overspend and find it difficult to pay later.
2. Competition is restricted; credit card holders may pay a high price for goods at a store offering credit facilities.
3. If interest is charged it is relatively high (varying from 18 to 24 per cent per annum).
4. If credit cards are lost or stolen they may be used dishonestly by somebody forging the holder's signature.
5. Credit cards increase the money supply and are therefore inflationary.

Finance companies also enable people to buy goods on credit by means of hire purchase, credit sales and personal loans.

### TOPIC 12.3 INFLATION

Have you heard your parents grumble about **inflation**? Ever since human beings settled down to live in communities people have complained of rising prices. The trade cycle of booms and



# Inflation lowest for six years

BRITAIN'S inflation rate fell in June from 7.7 per cent. to 7.4 per cent. — its lowest level for nearly six years. *Eastern Evening News*, 14 July, 1978.

slumps was one of the cycles we looked at in the first unit. There are longer-term price cycles of inflation (rising prices) and deflation (falling prices), but the trend through the ages has been for prices to keep on increasing. A small annual percentage increase in prices is known as **creeping inflation**. This is not too serious, but galloping or **hyper-inflation** can destroy a society.

It happened in Germany after World War I. In 1914 a German mark was worth a shilling (5p) but by 1923 one English pound could be exchanged for about 20,000,000,000,000 (20 billion) marks.

Could it happen here? The rate of British inflation in 1974 was 20 per cent. It is frightening to think that even if inflation continued at 15 per cent, during an average lifetime prices would increase 18,000 times! A £15,000 house today would be worth over £250 million in seventy years' time. To understand how inflation can be curbed you must understand its causes.

There are three main causes of inflation:

1. A large increase in the money supply, which is likely to cause a large rise in prices. Therefore the government has to control carefully the value of coins manufactured at the Royal Mint and the notes printed by the Bank of England. It also has to limit bank loans, overdrafts and other credit facilities.
2. An excessive increase in the demand for goods brought about by the extra purchasing power available if the money supply is increased. Economists call this **demand-pull inflation.** A clear example occurred in 1972 when house prices rose by 47 per cent in Britain as a whole and by 72 per cent in south-east England. So many people decided to move house that, although builders were constructing houses at a very rapid rate, they could not satisfy the fantastic demand.
3. An increase in the cost of production, e.g. in wages and raw materials. This is called **cost-push inflation**. The increased costs push up prices, so trade unions struggle to push up wages. It is a vicious **inflationary spiral.**

What, then, are the main dangers of a high rate of inflation?

1. If money becomes worthless there will be an economic disaster because people will not accept money as a means of payment.
2. There is no incentive to save, because money put by declines in actual value.
3. If investment falls off so will production and jobs.
4. The prices of our export goods will be so high that other countries may not be able to afford them.
5. If other nations do not buy our exports we will not be able to buy their goods; therefore imports will be reduced and the standard of living will fall.
6. Pensioners, and others on relatively fixed incomes, will suffer greatly because incomes will lag behind rising prices.

WAYS OF CURBING INFLATION

1. Limit the money supply by not issuing new money and by controlling the creation of credit by financial institutions
2. Maintain a prices and incomes policy upheld either by law or by voluntary persuasion (social contract)
3. Raise taxes so that people have less spending money
4. Increase productivity, especially of goods for export
5. Reduce government expenditure on projects we can do without for the time being, e.g. a third London airport or the Channel Tunnel
6. Impose severe conditions on hire purchase agreements, e.g. increase initial deposits and reduce the length of repayment periods
7. Persuade trade unions and employers to work together in industrial peace
8. Make people realise the tremendous dangers of inflation

## TOPIC 12.4 NATIONAL FINANCE

The government needs money to provide services for the community, and most of this money is taken from the people by **taxation**. In the spring of each year the Chancellor of the Exchequer presents his annual Budget. This is an estimate of **government expenditure** (or spending) for the coming year and the ways in which it is proposed to raise the money.

The Budget is only an estimate and it never balances exactly. In fact the Chancellor does not intend it to balance in any one year. If he thinks it is necessary for the economy to be boosted, and for jobs to be created, the Chancellor may decide to plan for a **budget deficit**, i.e. the government will spend more money than it receives in taxation. The additional spending is made good by government borrowing. The money may be spent on schools, hospitals, defence or less important projects. However it is spent, it is bound to provide employment opportunities. If the Chancellor wants to dampen down the economy he may plan for a **budget surplus**, i.e. the government will take more from taxpayers than it intends to spend on community services. We have already seen that increased income tax may curb inflation. The Chancellor has five main aims for the economy but he may find it very difficult to achieve all five at one time.

### MAIN BUDGETARY AIMS

1. Safeguard employment
2. Promote economic growth
3. Correct an unfavourable balance of payments
4. Secure social justice between different classes of the community
5. Control inflation

Sometimes these aims may work in opposing directions. If the Chancellor tries to control inflation by increasing income tax, people will have less purchasing power and the decreased demand may result in more unemployment. Compare it with a football team that attacks to try to score a goal but consequently weakens its defence so that it concedes a goal. The Chancellor of the Exchequer's job is not an easy one. If his spring estimates prove inaccurate, or if circumstances change, he may introduce *interim budgets*. The Chancellor will consult other cabinet ministers before he decides on tax changes or any new taxes he wishes to introduce.

There are two main types of tax:

1. **Direct taxes** on income, wealth and savings, collected by the Inland Revenue Commissioners.
2. **Indirect taxes** on consumer goods, collected by the Customs and Excise.

### ADVANTAGES OF INDIRECT TAXATION

1. Taxes may be imposed on goods the government wishes the public not to buy, e.g. the tax on petrol has increased greatly in recent years in an attempt to reduce oil imports
2. People may decide to work harder to pay the increased cost of the commodity
3. Indirect taxes are 'hidden' taxes (i.e. the taxpayer rarely knows exactly the amount of tax he pays), cannot easily be evaded, and allow the individual 'to tax himself' – e.g. if you want to pay tax then buy cigarettes and alcoholic drink!

### ADVANTAGES OF DIRECT TAXES

1. Allowances can be made so that those with extra responsibilities may secure concessions, e.g. income tax allowances for wife, children, dependent relatives, etc.
2. There is a graded scale so that tax rates get progressively higher the more income a person receives. Therefore the greatest burden falls on the well-off
3. They help to check inflation because they take money from would-be consumers and dampen down demand

The main direct tax is income tax which provides a larger yield than any other tax in the United Kingdom. Indirect taxes which yield very large sums include taxes on tobacco, alcoholic drinks, betting, cars and petrol.

The ways in which the government gets money from taxpayers are frequently changing. Several new taxes have been introduced in recent years.

All the money that is earned by the citizens of a country is known as the **national income**. It is reckoned by adding together the incomes of every person and institution. The national income includes all wages, salaries, fees, dividends, rents,

SOME MODERN TAXES

| | |
|---|---|
| *Capital gains tax* | First used in 1962 as a tax on the profit made from the sale of valuable assets such as stocks and shares |
| *Corporation tax* | Introduced in 1965 to replace the old company profits tax, it is intended to encourage firms to plough back more of their profits into the business |
| *Value added tax* | Introduced in 1973–4, it is a sales tax imposed at percentage rates on certain goods and services |
| *Capital transfer tax* | Has replaced estate duty since 1974. It is a tax on gifts of over £15,000 and is a way of charging death duties by instalments |

profits, etc. The largest amount is made up of the earnings of people in employment (about 66 per cent of the total). In 1975 the national income of the United Kingdom was about £75,000 million and included

1. incomes from employment
2. incomes from self-employment
3. profits of companies
4. profits of public corporations
5. rents.

The best way of increasing the national income is by improved productivity and greater output. The national income will also be increased by inflation but this only reflects the increased amount of money in the economy and is of no real advantage. **Real national income** is a term economists use when the national income is adjusted to make allowances for price increases. The real national income provides a good indication of people's welfare. To secure a just society it is important that the national income should be distributed as fairly as possible. We have seen that some inequalities can be ironed out by progressive income tax. The government uses this method to act as a modern Robin Hood, taking from the rich and giving to the poor. It does this through the welfare state, which is one of the most important means of working towards social justice.

### TOPIC 12.5 THE WELFARE STATE

A **welfare state** exists when the government spends money to provide a large range of social services and benefits for its citizens instead of leaving them to care for themselves. We are including the welfare state in this unit because it costs money to look after the welfare of the community. Have you ever heard anybody say something like 'Why don't *they* provide more hospitals?' Who are *they?* The speaker probably means 'the government', but he has not realised that the government cannot do anything without money.

The money for welfare services comes mainly from

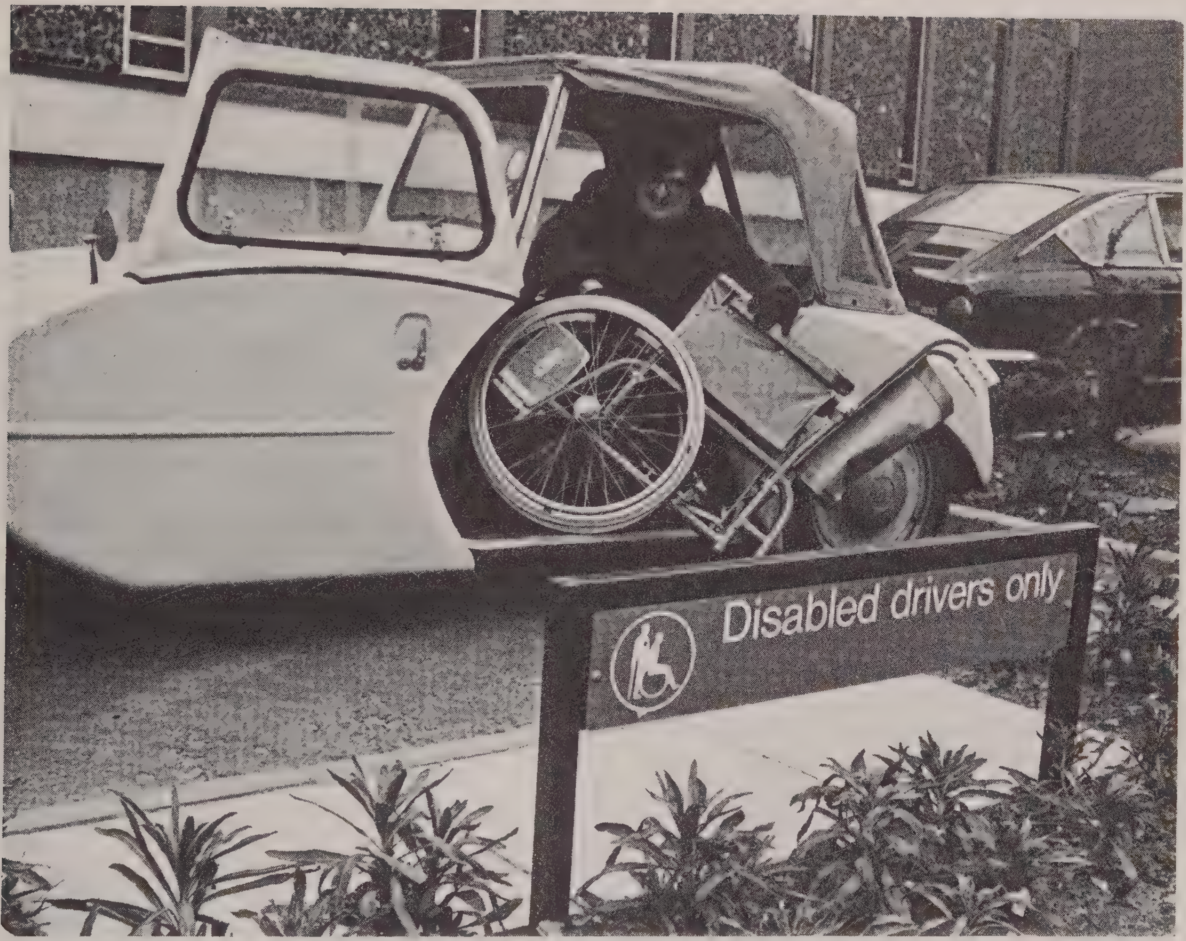
1. taxes collected by the central government
2. rates collected by local authorities (see unit 4)
3. national insurance contributions.

Although communal help for the poor can be traced back to the Elizabethan Poor Law of 1601, not very much was done to improve their lot until the twentieth century. The Liberal governments of 1906 to 1922 introduced old age pensions and also gave monetary help to the unemployed, sick, disabled and mothers-to-be. In the inter-war years very slow progress was made towards extending a state welfare system, although there was the beginning of orphans' and widows' pensions, school meals and milk and rented houses for the working class.

It was not until after World War II that services were such as to warrant the term 'welfare state'. From the time of the *Beveridge Report* of 1942 the state has looked after its citizens from the cradle to the grave.

Let us trace some of these benefits by considering an average person's life-span. Look up the present figures and see what increases there have been in recent years. A *maternity benefit* is paid for eighteen weeks before the birth of a baby; then the mother receives a *maternity grant*. Ante-natal clinics are provided before the birth and post-natal clinics with check-ups and cheap foods are available after the birth. The local authority pays health visitors to watch the progress of mother and child. *Guardians' allowances* are payable to people who have in their family a child who has lost both parents.

If the family is on a very low income it may be eligible for a *family income supplement* (*FIS*) which



is paid when the wage-earner is in full-time employment but the family income falls below a certain level. The FIS amounts to half the difference between the family income and the prescribed level.

The welfare state does not merely include payments of money to those in need. In the broadest sense the welfare state includes such things as free education, local authority housing, employment exchanges, the probation service and, most important of all, the National Health Service. The plank of the whole welfare state for over thirty years has been the NHS, and the money cost of this service is about £8,000 million a year. It includes three main services:

1. hospitals administered, since 1974, through twenty regional hospital boards
2. local authority services provided by the council's social services department
3. doctors, dentists and pharmacists under the supervision of family practitioner committees.

When a young person starts work he is helped by the employment services. An unemployed man receives *unemployment benefit*, provided he qualifies by means of stamps on a national insurance card. The same sum is paid in the case of sickness benefits. There are too many welfare benefits to mention here, but the care of the welfare state is extended to widows and old people (*retirement pension*) and even includes a *death grant* to help with burial or cremation expenses.

Money is necessary for the welfare state to provide all its vital benefits and services. We have seen how life in Britain would be much more difficult without money. It just remains for us to consider how we are affected by money transactions between our country and other countries, i.e. the balance of payments.

'We'll have a bed for you in a day or two.'

### TOPIC 12.6 BALANCE OF PAYMENTS

It is almost impossible for anybody to live in modern Britain and not hear about the country's **balance of payments** problems! Radio, television and other instruments of the mass media give a report each month on our trade figures.

Look at the cutting reproduced from *The Times* of 15 April 1975. What does it all mean? It tells us first that we had a trade deficit of £106 million in March 1975. This means that the goods we imported cost £106 million more than goods we exported. *The Times* considered that this was quite a good month.

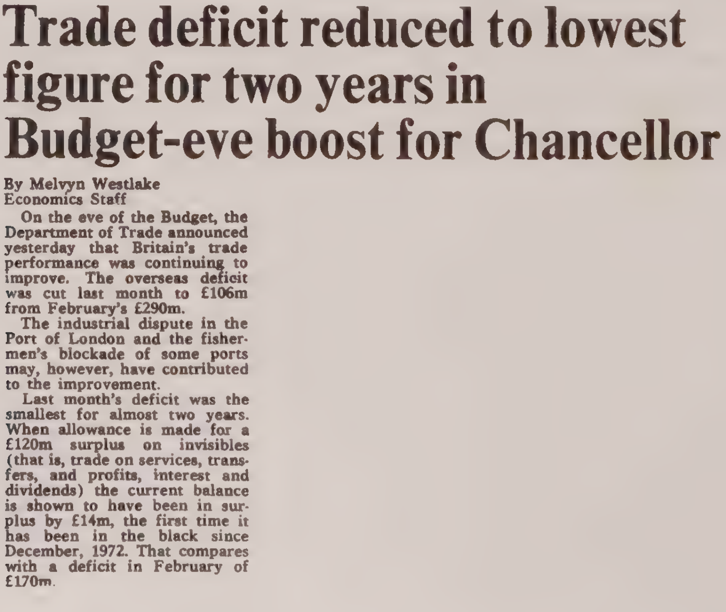
The trade figures often vary a great deal from month to month. In March 1975 we did not import as many goods as usual because there was a London dock strike and fishermen blockaded the ports as a 'demo' against cheap foreign fish which they said was endangering the livelihood of British fishermen.

Although *The Times* extract shows that our balance of trade was in deficit, when allowance was made for invisible trade (e.g. the earnings of insurance companies, banks, tourism, shipping companies, British Airways, etc.) Britain had a small surplus for the month. How much was this surplus?

Britain nearly always has a **balance of trade** deficit: the cost of imported goods (such as food, raw materials and manufactured goods) is usually greater than the cost of the goods we export. But when invisibles are included we may have a favourable balance of payments.

Balance of trade = visible trade
Balance of payments = visible *plus* invisible trade

From a deficit of £1,107 million in 1976 our balance of payments improved in 1977. This was mainly caused by the contribution of North Sea oil.



# Trade deficit reduced to lowest figure for two years in Budget-eve boost for Chancellor

By Melvyn Westlake
Economics Staff

On the eve of the Budget, the Department of Trade announced yesterday that Britain's trade performance was continuing to improve. The overseas deficit was cut last month to £106m from February's £290m.

The industrial dispute in the Port of London and the fishermen's blockade of some ports may, however, have contributed to the improvement.

Last month's deficit was the smallest for almost two years. When allowance is made for a £120m surplus on invisibles (that is, trade on services, transfers, and profits, interest and dividends) the current balance is shown to have been in surplus by £14m, the first time it has been in the black since December, 1972. That compares with a deficit in February of £170m.

No one was going to make April Fools of them. Fishermen's boats block Aberdeen harbour on 1 April 1975

| *Balance of payments (£ million)* | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | 1975 | 1976 | 1977 |
| Visible trade | –3,205 | –3,510 | –1,612 |
| Invisible trade | +1,591 | +2,403 | +1,577 |
| Current balance | –1,614 | –1,107 | –35 |

You will see from the table that our visible deficit in 1976 was over £3,500 million. What would have been the annual deficit *on oil alone*, if our monthly payments to the oil producing and exporting countries had been £300 million? Our balance of payments position should improve greatly when we become self-sufficient in oil in the 1980s. When we are able to export some of our offshore oil we will gain foreign currency and probably have a healthy balance of payments surplus.

For the moment we have to rely a lot on invisibles which bring to this country about £1,500 million a year (over £120 million a month). In the same way as we import and export goods such as cars, so invisible payments flow both ways. Tourists in this country spend a lot of money in Britain. They stay in our hotels, travel on our trains, and spend money visiting historic places.

The government sometimes has to make difficult choices in relation to foreign trade. In 1975 it was reported that Libya wanted to spend £1,000 million of her vast oil profits on British armaments. Such a deal would have helped our balance of payments, but what would have been the effect on the Arab-Israeli conflict in the Middle East? No problem is simply an economic problem or a question of money alone.

### EXPLAIN WHAT IS MEANT BY:

barter
money functions
money supply
cheque
clearing banks
credit
inflation
creeping inflation
hyper-inflation
demand-pull inflation
cost-push inflation
inflationary spiral
taxation
government expenditure
budget deficit
budget surplus
direct taxes
indirect taxes
national income
real national income
welfare state
balance of payments
balance of trade

### CASE STUDY: LIFE ON A MILLION POUNDS A WEEK

When Hans returned to Berlin after World War I he found a job in a printing factory. Life was more difficult than it had been before the war began in 1914, but he was able to make a reasonable living. Prices were rising and Germany owed her old enemies millions of pounds in reparations, but little of this affected Hans as he settled down to a normal life with his wife, Monika.

It was in 1921 that Hans and Monika began to realise that all was not well. Before the war the rate of exchange had been 20 marks to the pound sterling. A mark was worth 1 shilling (5p) and it had been that way as long as anybody could remember. When Hans came back from the war he earned £2 a week. By 1921 the value of the mark had depreciated so much that Hans' wage was £40 a week, but although Monika was a good manager in the home they did not seem any better off. In March 1922 Hans brought home his first £100 pay packet. A massive pay rise of 50 per cent put them in a better position for a few weeks. Hans was then on a wage of £150 a week.

Their gain was short-lived. In January 1923, life on a weekly wage of £5,000 was a bitter struggle. The rent, which had been 10 shillings (50p) in 1918, was now £800 a week. Workers were demanding pay increases of 60 per cent, and getting them. In February 1923 Hans said to Monika, 'We've got our pay rise.' He was on £10,000 a week.

Hans and Monika realised that their money would be worth much less in a few weeks' time so they spent it as quickly as possible. Only a fool tried to save money in the Germany of 1923.

Industry came almost to a halt when the French occupied the Ruhr. The government was forced to print more money as the mark was devalued again.

In April 1923 Hans' weekly wage was £50,000. Bread was £250 a loaf and cabbages £50 each, but a week later all prices doubled again. By July 1923 Hans was earning over £1,000,000 a week. In the mad rush of hyper-inflation the price of a loaf rose to £2,000 while a tin of beans cost £10,000.

Trying to hold on to a mark was like grasping a snowflake. The exchange value was changed twice a day at 11 a.m. and 5 p.m. People chased from one shop to another trying to find a shopkeeper who had not increased his prices.

Monika got up early in the morning to pack Hans' bus-fare in a suit-case. Hans' boss hired a lorry to carry the wages for his employees. People began to think in millions. A father, when asked how many children he had, might casually reply, 'Five million.'

But it was no joke. In August 1923 Hans received his first £50,000 note. It made his pay packet of two suitcases less of a burden, but he and Monika were as badly off as ever. The factory where Hans worked joined with fifty others in printing new notes.

In September 1923 life became ridiculous. Hans went to buy a suit for £8 million. He left his change of £2 million in the shop but by the time he returned it would only buy a pair of laces. When he went to a restaurant he asked for the bill after each course because prices changed while he ate. Monika told him of a friend who bought a pair of gloves for £4 million but picked up two left gloves in error. By the time she realised her mistake the gloves had shot up to £8 million; she had to pay another £4 million to make up a pair.

People papered their walls with bank notes and trundled pianos around the street to pay the grocer's bill. Even old scrap iron was more valuable than money. They wheeled their wages home in barrows.

In November 1923 the great inflation went into its last lunatic spasm and £1 exchanged for 20,000,000,000,000 (20 billion) marks. Dr Luther, the Minister of Finance, announced that the mark was to be replaced by the rentenmark which was supposedly backed by mortgaging all the land of the country. The price of inflation had been terrible: mass unemployment, suicides, bankruptcies and the rise to power of Adolf Hitler.

1. Who loses and who gains during a time of inflation?
2. Why are people discouraged from saving and investing during inflation?
3. How many years would it take for prices to double if inflation continued at an annual rate of 25 per cent? (This was about the rate for Britain in mid-1975.)
4. Do you think that Britain could be faced with

an inflationary situation such as faced people in Germany in 1923? Give reasons for your answer.

### FOLLOW-UP

1. Imagine you are the Chancellor of the Exchequer. What taxes would you alter? (If you take off some taxes, make good the revenue in other ways.)
2. Give two arguments for and against:
   - (a) capital transfer tax
   - (b) petrol tax
   - (c) tobacco tax
   - (d) VAT
   - (e) wealth taxes
3. How would you attempt to check inflation?
4. What are the difficulties of a prices and incomes policy?
5. The following actions will affect the balance of payments. Divide into two columns according to whether they are intended to
   - (i) deal with a surplus
   - (ii) correct a deficit
   - (a) borrow from the International Monetary Fund
   - (b) increase direct taxes
   - (c) give awards to exporters
   - (d) devalue the pound
   - (e) decrease direct taxes
   - (f) make HP more difficult
   - (g) increase overseas aid
   - (h) borrow from foreign banks
   - (i) pay back foreign debts
   - (j) increase customs duties

### ACTIVITIES

1. A native living in a barter economy goes downriver in a boat with a load of wood he wishes to exchange for a supply of skins. He makes four swaps before securing his skins. Draw a cartoon to illustrate his journey.
2. Use reference books to look up
   - (a) fiduciary issue
   - (b) finance companies
   - (c) gold standard
   - (d) Maundy money
3. Call at a post office for a pamphlet on either the PO Giro or National Savings. Summarise the services provided.
4. Complete these spaces:

The money supply can be divided into t---- parts. C---- are made at the Royal M---. Those of most value are made of c----n-----. B---n---- are printed by the ---- of -------. Bank credit is provided by financial institutions including the s-- clearing banks. The four largest are called L-----, M------, B------- and N------- W----------. (Each missing letter is represented by a dash.)

5. List the main advantages and disadvantages of
   - (a) a current account
   - (b) a deposit account

### CSE QUESTIONS

1. Money is essential to the working of a complicated industrial economy such as our own.
   - (a) What are the basic uses of money?
   - (b) What are the three basic forms of money?
   - (c) How can the commercial banks increase the supply of money?

   (East Midland Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
2. (a) Explain how credit cards work. How are they issued? What limits are placed on their use? How does the company issuing them benefit? How does the shop accepting payment by them benefit?
   - (b) What dangers are there in this system for the shopper?

   (Metropolitan Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
3. Inflation has been a persistent problem in Britain for many years.
   - (a) What is inflation?
   - (b) How might inflation affect our imports?
   - (c) How might inflation affect our exports?
   - (d) How might inflation affect our savings?

   (East Midland Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
4. Write about the different sorts of taxes and local rates and explain their purpose.

   (East Anglian Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
5. Define national income and explain how it is measured. How can we increase national income?

   (East Midland Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
6. The balance of payments continues to dominate the news each month.

(a) What information do the 'monthly trade figures' give?
(b) What are our 'invisible earnings'?
(c) Why has the government been worried about spending on troops and by tourists abroad?

(East Midland Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)

# V LIVING IN THE WORLD

## Unit 13 *GOVERNMENT*

### TOPIC 13.1 AUTHORITY AND POWER

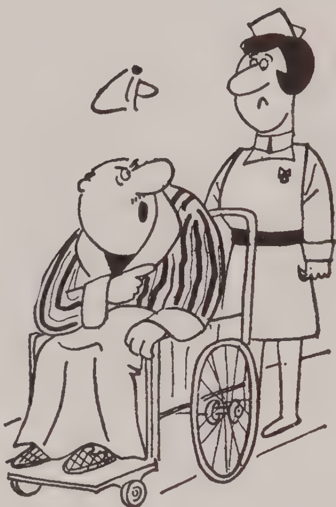
The chief priests and elders said to Jesus: 'By what authority are you acting like this? Who gave you this authority?' Throughout an individual's life-cycle many people and organisations exercise **authority** over him.

As a little child you obeyed your parents without thinking. They were older and wiser (and stronger!) than you. Parents naturally assume responsibility and they are also legally responsible for you. If they fail to exert authority over their children they may break the law. If parents fail to **control** young children then they themselves may feel the authority of the court.

Mankind has long exercised authority over animals. Authority is not always a matter of physical force. A shepherd's authority over his sheep involves protecting them and caring for them. If your family's dog bites the postman your father may be ordered to keep the animal under control. If he still fails to exercise his authority the court may order the dog to be destroyed. So it will die because there has been insufficient authority.

Animals living in the wild state exercise control over their young. What is it that gives a male lion authority over his cubs? It is mainly that he is stronger and can use the **power** of force. This state of affairs prevails throughout most of the animal world. In many cases the male has authority over the female because he is a more powerful animal. Is this why, for thousands of years, it has been customary for men to have authority over women? 'The woman must see to it that she pays her husband all respect.' (Letter from St Paul to the Ephesians.) What argument could supporters of women's lib put forward against these ideas? How can one person have power over another except by using force?

In some cases a female animal exerts authority over the male of the species. You may remember that we referred to female rule over the family as matriarchal. Authority is linked with power. Any person or organisation recognised as having authority has power over others. The leader of a herd of elephants may force an old, weak elephant away from the herd and leave it to die. The leaders of certain Eskimo groups decide upon a similar fate for their old people and leave them on the ice to die. Do you think this is an example of power being used in the wrong way? Or may this be kinder than deciding that old people should be kept alive for long periods in geriatric hospitals?



'Listen, sister – nobody pushes me around.'

It does not matter if the power is imaginary, so long as it is accepted. Atheists do not believe in God and therefore reject his authority. But this does not prevent God, or his representatives, having power over those who do believe. Many people accept the authority of the church because of deeply held **religious beliefs**. The ardent Roman Catholic usually accepts the authority of the Pope because he believes his power comes from God.

Throughout life there are authorities we have to recognise. At school, if we do not recognise the authority of teachers we may be punished. School

Church and Crown

governors have overall control of teachers – of what is taught and how it is taught. Workers may be dismissed if they do not obey the authority of the foreman. A boss may be called the 'Guvnor' because he governs what goes on at the place of work. Many organisations have governing bodies which exercise authority over their members.

The governing body of the Church of England is the General Synod. The Church of England is the state church or the established church. It still voices concern on social problems such as abortion and divorce, but it has lost much of its authority in recent years. Its archbishops, bishops and deans are appointed by the sovereign on the advice of the prime minister. Thus the prime minister, as leader of the government of the day, has some authority over the church. The Church of England must obtain Parliament's consent to any changes in its form of worship, and all clergy take an oath of allegiance to the sovereign.

The government has authority over the whole country. In times of national emergency the established church is expected to support the state. In this country the church may find a double pull on its loyalty. Ought it to accept the authority of Christ as the Prince of Peace and condemn war, or should it accept a government's war policy and pray for victory over the state's enemies? We have seen from the beginning of this book that humans are sometimes motivated by love and sometimes by hate.

The government expects Anglican officials to play their part in national affairs. For example, at the coronation of a new monarch or the funeral of his predecessor, church and government exercise a **joint authority**.

## TOPIC 13.2 WHO SHALL GOVERN?

At one time it was fairly easy to answer the question 'Who shall govern?' Most countries of the world were under the authority of a **monarch**. This king, queen or emperor had **absolute power**. Henry VIII had little difficulty in finding reasons (excuses) for having two of his wives beheaded. But peoples throughout the world became tired of being pushed around by one person whose right to govern rested on an accident of birth. During the French Revolution, King Louis XVI and his queen Marie Antoinette were guillotined and members of the king's government suffered the same fate. In 1917 the Russian Revolution deposed Tsar Nicholas II, who was probably shot in 1918 with the Tsarina and their children. In Britain changes came with less bloodshed, and more gradually.

We no longer believe in the divine right of the monarch to rule. What is the best form of government to replace absolute monarchy? Most modern Western governments are elected by the people. People's government is known as **democracy**, from the Greek word *demos* meaning the people and *krateo*, to rule.

The people of Britain struggled for a long period to set up a democratic form of government. Look up for yourself the details of Magna Carta (1215) and the 1689 Bill of Rights. The People's Charter of 1839 set out six points; the five points of the Chartists, which were eventually conceded, are all essential to the principle of democracy (see below).

The Chartists were not far enough ahead of their time to demand votes for women. After a desperate struggle by the **suffragettes** women over the age of thirty were granted the vote in 1918, and since 1928 all women have been allowed to vote.

Britain has been a democracy for about fifty years. When the legal age for adults was changed, eighteen-year-olds were able to vote for the first time in 1970. The only Chartist point never granted was their demand for annual parliaments. The Chartists thought it would be very democratic to be able to remove unpopular governments quickly, but annual parliaments would be unworkable. A government would not have time to carry out a worthwhile policy. What occasions can you think of when it is necessary even for a democratically elected government to be unpopular? What unpopular measures did the Chancellor of the Exchequer introduce in his last budget?

### MAIN CONDITIONS OF BRITISH DEMOCRACY

1. All people over the age of eighteen can vote, with a few exceptions such as peers, criminals and lunatics
2. Free elections conducted by secret ballot with severe punishments for anyone found guilty of bribery or other corrupt practices
3. Electors vote for candidates who represent a political party and the party which secures the most seats forms the government
4. The leader of the majority party becomes prime minister
5. A parliament cannot last for more than five years and then voters have an opportunity to elect a new government
6. Everybody has to keep laws passed by Parliament, but people cannot be punished for opposing the government
7. Her Majesty's Opposition has the official task of criticising the Government and the leader of HM Opposition is paid a salary for this purpose
8. Minority groups are allowed to put their views freely and time is allotted to them on radio and television

| *Advances towards democracy* | *Date achieved* |
|---|---|
| 1. Abolition of the property qualification: you do not have to own property to vote in parliamentary elections | 1858 |
| 2. Secret ballot: nobody else knows how you vote | 1872 |
| 3. Adult male suffrage: votes for *all* men | 1884 |
| 4. Equal electoral districts: each MP should represent roughly the same number of people | 1885 |
| 5. Payment of MPs: a Member of Parliament need not have any private income | 1911 |

热烈欢呼全国（除台湾省外）山河一片红

Mass parade in Peking, China

A country ruled by a government which is not elected is known as a **totalitarian state**. Franco's Spain, a right-wing totalitarian state, was ruled by a *fascist government*. The People's Republic of China, a left-wing totalitarian state, is ruled by a *communist government*. If you lived in such countries you might find that elections very rarely took place.

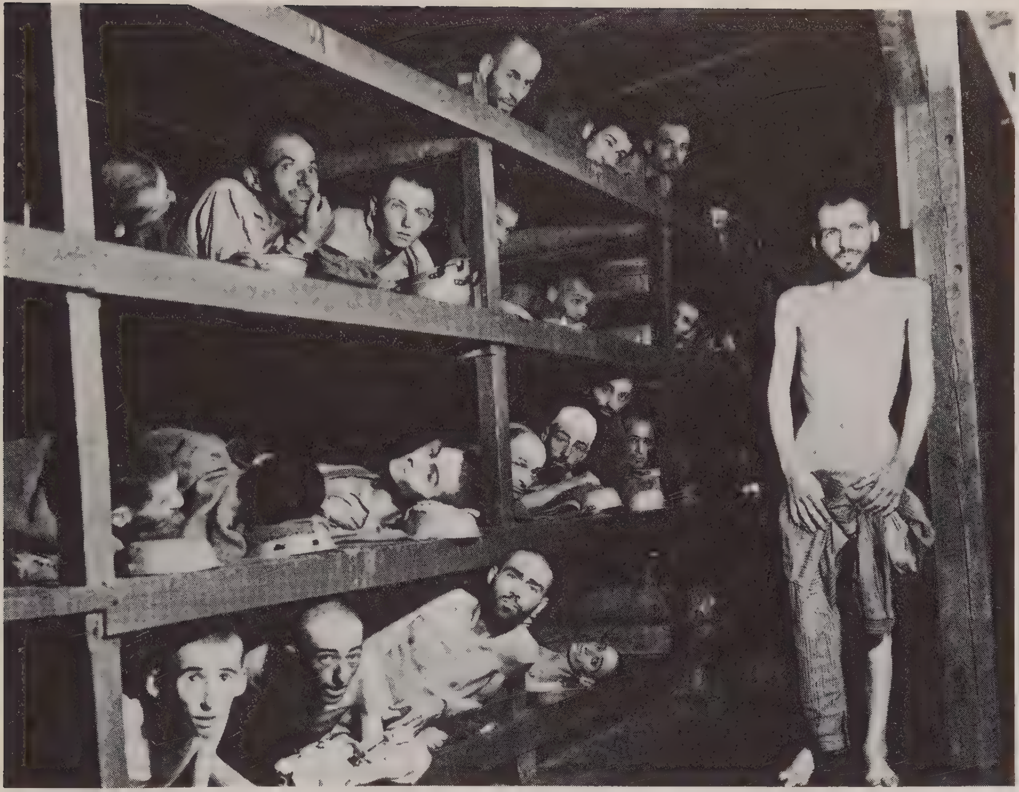
In a totalitarian state or dictatorship *the party* is supreme. If people in Hitler's Germany were not members of the Nazi Party, a visit from the Gestapo might 'persuade' them to join.

Newspapers in a totalitarian state will be owned by the state. *Isvestia* and *Pravda* are organs of the Russian government. The radio and press are also controlled by the government. One of the essentials of democracy is a 'free press' in the sense that anyone has the right to publish so long as the law of libel is not broken and no vital state secrets are revealed.

Totalitarian governments have used concentration camps and forced labour camps for political prisoners. Opponents of the government may disappear overnight and never be seen again. A feeling of **nationalism** is stirred up so that people feel intensely loyal to their country and its government. Nationalism often leads to a hatred of foreigners. Prejudice against Jews was fostered in pre-war Germany and millions of Jews were exterminated in gas chambers.

The evolution of a democratic state is similar to the growth of a tree; it does not take place overnight. There must be progressive cycles before democracy matures. It is difficult to transplant the democratic concept to Africa where the coloured nations have recently been granted self-government after years of rule by foreign governments. Where the occupying power had not prepared the people for self-government terrible massacres have occurred, e.g. in the former Belgian Congo (Zaire), and in part of Nigeria. One-party states have been proclaimed in some parts of Africa.

We can be proud that Britain, on the whole, has a good record of training 'colonial' people to rule themselves. The first step was to grant **dominion status** to Australia, New Zealand and Canada.



The horror of Buchenwald concentration camp is revealed. How many freed slave labourers are shown in the photograph?

Since the Statute of Westminster (1931) these countries have governed themselves. Their parliaments have equal status with the British Parliament.

What steps should the government of Britain be taking if power is to be transferred eventually from the representatives of the 250,000 white people to the 5 million black people? What do you think Britain should do to see that Northern Ireland is governed peacefully? Good government means that people can live their lives freely, fully and peacefully. Although a democratic government is sometimes criticised for progressing too slowly, it is better to move slowly, with the consent of the people, than to move rapidly against their wishes.

### TOPIC 13.3 MONARCH OR PRESIDENT?

The United Kingdom (England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland) is a **monarchical state**. The monarch is the head of the state and the government is carried on in the sovereign's name. We talk about **Her Majesty's Government**.

The Queen reigns but she does not rule. She is a **constitutional monarch** and her powers are limited by the **British constitution**. Our constitution is not a written one like that of the United States. The British constitution is a flexible one. It can be modified by Acts of Parliament.

**Parliament** can alter the law relating to the monarchy. At present the law states that the monarch must not be a Roman Catholic. Parliament also controls the monarch's financial allowance by voting a 'civil list' to provide a personal income for the monarch and the expenses of the royal household.

When newspapers refer to the **British Government** they mean the ruling party led by the prime minister and supported by his cabinet of senior ministers. The monarch still has some powers and they depend on the **royal prerogative**. These powers go back to a time before our modern Parliament and do not depend on Parliament. Today we have a constitutional monarchy and prerogative powers are exercised on the advice of a minister of the

The Queen opens Parliament for the twenty-second time (October 1974)

Crown. Ministers are responsible to Parliament which is responsible to the people who elected it. Democratic principles operate because the sovereign acts according to the wishes of the people.

### THE MONARCH'S PREROGATIVES

1. The monarch appoints as prime minister the leader of the party which commands a majority in the House of Commons
2. Cabinet ministers are chosen by the Prime Minister but accept their seals of office from the monarch
3. The monarch dissolves (i.e. dismisses) Parliament on the advice of the prime minister
4. The monarch creates peers and confers honours on the advice of the prime minister

A democracy can have a **president** or a monarch as head of state. The monarch's role in a democracy is restricted by elected representatives, as in Britain. A president is elected but usually by a different process from that used to elect the law-making body. Under the American constitution the president and the Houses of Congress are elected separately. It is possible to have a president who represents one party and one or both of the Houses of Congress representing a different party. The president might then be impeded in his duties. The president may pick his cabinet from non-elected people and he may not be answerable in the short run to the elected Houses; it was a long time before the Americans were able to dismiss President Nixon.

Why do we retain a monarchy in Britain while most other democracies have a president?

## TOPIC 13.4 COMMONS AND LORDS

The **House of Commons** consists of 635 elected Members of Parliament. The two main parties claim about 600 seats, so it can truly be called a two-party system.

MEMBERS ELECTED AT THE GENERAL ELECTION OF OCTOBER 1974

| *Party* | *Number of seats* |
|---|---|
| Labour | 319 |
| Conservative | 276 |
| Liberal | 12 |
| Scottish Nationalist | 11 |
| United Ulster Unionist | 10 |
| Plaid Cymru (Welsh Nationalist) | 3 |
| Others | 3 |
| Speaker | 1 |
| Total MPs | 635 |

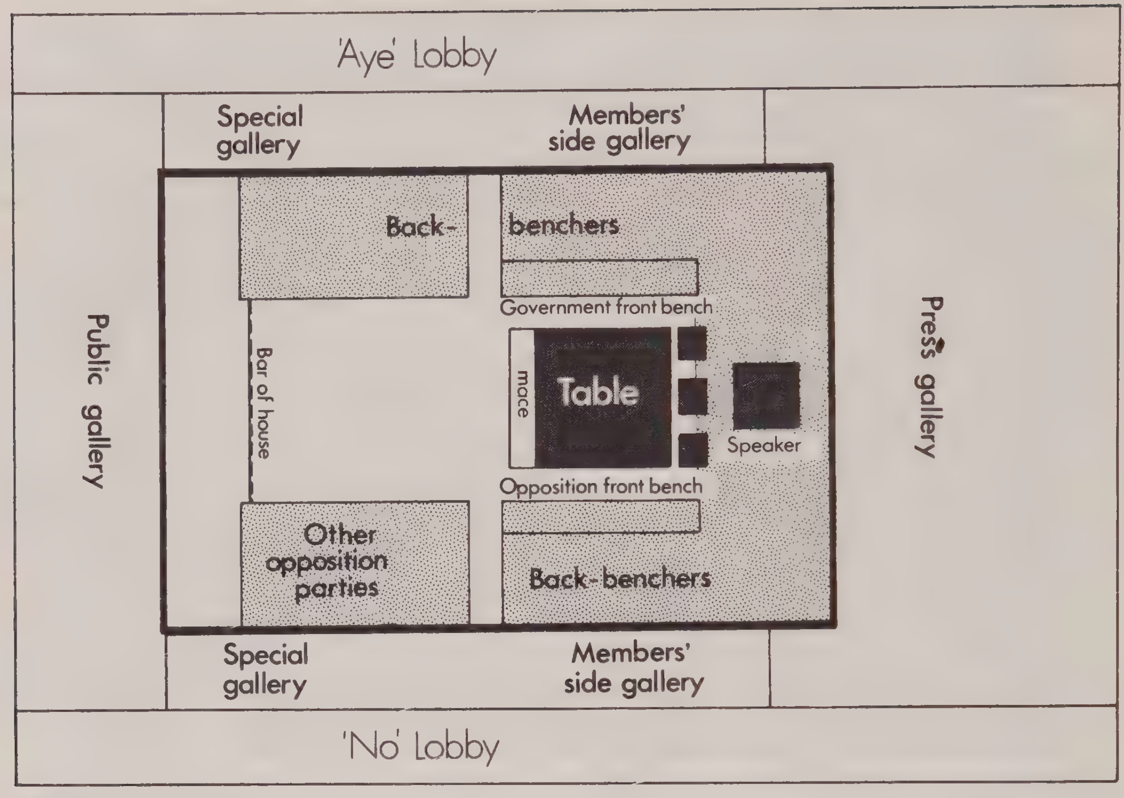
The political party which wins a majority of seats, or is able to command a majority of supporters in the House of Commons, usually forms the Government.

The *speaker* is elected to preside over the House. He is impartial and does not involve himself in party politics. A speaker holds office until he retires or dies.

The Government sits on the right of the speaker and the Opposition on the left. If you look at the diagram you will see that the prime minister and his cabinet colleagues sit on the government front bench facing the leader of the Opposition and members of the shadow cabinet. Behind them sit the mass of *back-benchers* who make up the majority of MPs. You will see that there are two *voting lobbies*. Those who agree with a motion go into the '*aye*' *lobby* and those who disagree enter the '*no*' *lobby*. They are counted by MPs known as

MONARCH VERSUS PRESIDENT

| *Advantages of a monarchy* | *Advantages of a presidency* |
|---|---|
| 1. The monarch is trained from birth in the art of democratic government | 1. The president is elected with the support of the majority of the people |
| 2. The monarch is above politics and does not support any party | 2. A president owes his position to merit and personal ability |
| 3. National unity is symbolised by the monarch | 3. It is possible to remove an inefficient or corrupt president |
| 4. Traditional pageantry and ceremony provide a popular spectacle | 4. It is more logical in a democracy that people should vote for the head of State |
| 5. The British monarchy finds support throughout most of the Commonwealth | 5. A president does not rely upon an accident of birth |
| 6. It provides a unifying symbol for the nation | 6. He is respected for his own worth |
| 7. The monarch uses her private fortune to bolster up the Civil List money | 7. It is claimed that there have been fewer bad presidents than bad monarchs |
| 8. Other members of the Royal Family perform functions such as opening new schools | 8. A president does not have a large number of relatives who have to be kept by the State because of family attachments |
| 9. The British monarch must be a Protestant and provides leadership in religion and family life | 9. It is possible to have a president of any religion; John Kennedy was the first Roman Catholic president of the USA |
| 10. A monarchy provides continuity of government and can warn, encourage and advise | 10. A president is active in government and not just an ornamental figurehead |


'Aye' Lobby
Special gallery
Members' side gallery
Public gallery
Back-
benchers
Government front bench
Bar of house
mace
Table
Speaker
Press gallery
Opposition front bench
Other opposition parties
Back-benchers
Special gallery
Members' side gallery
'No' Lobby

The House of Commons

*tellers*. Can you think of any ways by which the voting procedure for MPs could be modernised?

One important task of Parliament is to pass Acts which alter the laws of the land in the light of changing conditions of life. This is done by introducing a Bill which goes through eleven stages. The action of the monarch in signing the Bill is known as the Royal Assent; at this moment the Bill becomes an Act. The passing of laws, or **legislation** as it is called, is a very thorough business. It is important that no ill-advised Act should be passed hastily.

THE ELEVEN STAGES THAT MAKE A BILL INTO AN ACT

| *Stage* | *Action* |
|---|---|
| 1. First reading | The minister responsible presents a 'dummy Bill' to a Clerk who reads its title. This is a formality before the Bill is printed in full and distributed to MPs |
| 2. Second reading | This is the most important stage. A debate takes place on the Bill's principles followed by a **division**, i.e. a vote |
| 3. Committee stage | The Bill is discussed in detail by a committee of MPs who amend it where they think it necessary |
| 4. Report stage<br>5. Third reading | These are usually taken together. The amended Bill is reported back to the House |
| 6 to 10. House of Lords | The Bill passes through the same stages in the House of Lords |
| 11. Royal Assent | The monarch signs the Bill after it has been passed by both Houses of Parliament |

Let us imagine a day in the life of a Member of Parliament. As the House of Commons does not sit until 2.30 p.m. an MP's morning is occupied in a variety of ways. He answers letters from constituents with problems and writes letters on their behalf to *government departments*. He may receive a *delegation* of people who hope to secure his support on a particular matter. MPs are members of *standing committees* which examine Bills in detail. If an MP is interested in education he may well be a member of the committee which deals with educational Bills. An MP who intends to take part in a parliamentary debate might work in the Commons library. Many MPs have jobs outside Parliament and could be engaged in work as journalists, lawyers, lecturers, trade union leaders, etc. After lunch an MP will probably attend the House. The daily timetable starts with prayers and preliminary business, before going on to question time. This is the main chance for an MP to raise grievances and secure answers from government ministers. It lasts for about an hour. Public business begins at about 4 p.m. and goes on until 10.30 p.m. except on Fridays, when the Commons sits from 11 a.m. to 4.30 p.m. Much of the work of the Commons is done in the evenings, so it is a tiring job. There have been all-night sessions.

An MP cannot be expected to listen to eight hours of talk every day; also there are evening functions and parliamentary delegations to other countries. An MP may arrange a *pairing* with a member of the opposite party so that each side will be one member short. Such pairings must be registered with the Whips' Office. The 'whips' enforce party discipline. An MP is expected to support party policy and vote in the way indicated by the whips. If an MP ignores a *three-line whip* (i.e. an urgent summons to be present for a vital vote) then he is likely to be disciplined by his party and his chances of advancing his political career will be damaged. MPs tend to specialise in certain subjects and to be present in the chamber when these subjects are discussed. At other times an MP may be ready to vote when reminded by the division bell. Many of his weekends will be spent in his constituency where he has responsibilities to those who elected him.

Membership of the Commons is more important than membership of the **House of Lords**, but the second chamber still plays an important part in the government of the country. We have seen that a Bill has to pass through the Lords, although the Lords cannot reject **money Bills**. Any Bill which the Speaker classes as a money Bill becomes law within one month of being sent to the House of Lords.

THE PART PLAYED BY THE LORDS TODAY

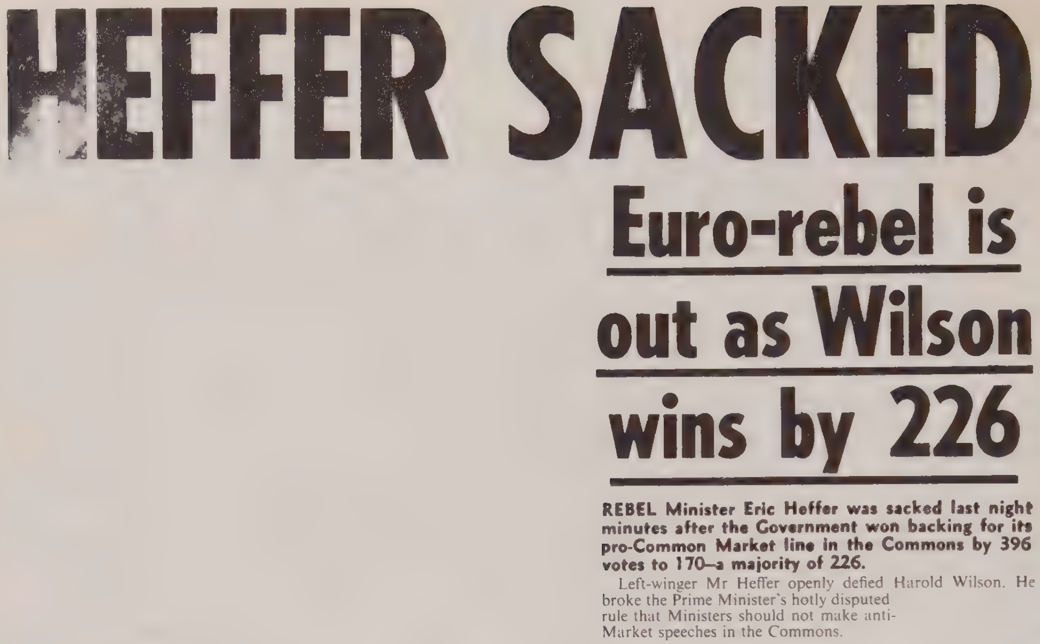
1. Some non-controversial Bills are introduced in the Lords and pass through that House first
2. Amendment of Bills which are sent up by the Commons, although if the amendments are not accepted the Lords normally give way
3. The Lords, in exceptional circumstances, can delay a Bill for twelve months
4. Provide a high standard of debate, with views expressed free from rigid party discipline
5. It is the final court of appeal in legal matters

There are over 1,000 members of the House of Lords, although the average attendance is only about 250. There are four main groups of members:

1. 900 hereditary peers
2. 26 bishops (including two archbishops)
3. 150 life peers created under the 1958 Life Peerages Act
4. 20 law lords.

Members of the House of Lords receive no salary but can claim travelling expenses provided they attend at least one-third of the sittings. The granting of an expense allowance is just one of several recent changes. Others include the admission of life peers and women members. Reform of the House of Lords is believed by many to be overdue. In 1968 the Labour Government put forward proposals which were quite well received by both main political parties, but as governments have staggered from one political and economic crisis to another, time has not been available to put the reforms into effect. The changes put forward in the 1968 White Paper included:

1. A new House of Lords to be two-tiered.
2. The first tier to have about 230 voting members created for life by the monarch on the advice of the prime minister.
3. The second tier of non-voting peers at first to consist of hereditary peers, but their successors would not have the right to attend and their place would be taken by leading public figures from science, industry, trade unions, the professions, etc.



# HEFFER SACKED

## Euro-rebel is out as Wilson wins by 226

**REBEL Minister Eric Heffer was sacked last night minutes after the Government won backing for its pro-Common Market line in the Commons by 396 votes to 170—a majority of 226.**

Left-winger Mr Heffer openly defied Harold Wilson. He broke the Prime Minister's hotly disputed rule that Ministers should not make anti-Market speeches in the Commons.

4. The delaying power would be cut to six months.

It is generally admitted that the membership and work of the House of Lords should be improved. One day a government will find time for this necessary reform.

### TOPIC 13.5 MODERN GOVERNMENT

Britain has a parliamentary government but the real power lies with the **prime minister**. There has been a growth in the importance of the prime minister in recent years.

He alone has the authority to choose the most important ministers who form the **cabinet**, and he can dismiss any member who steps out of line. The prime minister's first job, after assuming office, is to pick his cabinet. Then he chooses less important ministers who will not have cabinet rank.

The leader of the party with the second largest number of seats in the Commons becomes the **leader of the Opposition** and selects a **shadow cabinet**. It is a fairly modern custom to select members of the Opposition to 'shadow' the important government ministers. The system has two important advantages:

1. An opposition MP specialises in a particular subject and is able to face his opposite member on the government front bench with expert knowledge.
2. If it wins the next election the Opposition is more ready to form the government, although it is by no means certain that the MP who has been acting as the spokesman on a certain subject (e.g. education) will become the secretary of state for education and science.

There are usually about twenty members of the cabinet, although on occasion an **inner cabinet** of about six ministers meets to discuss important issues. The cabinet meets once or twice a week, at 10 Downing Street, under the chairmanship of the prime minister. Cabinet policy is drawn up. The principle of **collective responsibility** means that all members of the Government must support cabinet policy. During debates on the Common Market referendum in 1975, ministers were not permitted to oppose, in the Commons, the Government's recommendation that we should remain members of the EEC. When Mr Eric Heffer voiced his opposition he was dismissed from his ministerial post by Mr Harold Wilson, the prime minister.

To return to the concept of power with which we began this unit, consider for yourself who really holds the power in modern Britain. Is it the people, or Parliament, or the cabinet, or the prime minister, or do you think they all have some say?

Britain is really ruled by a cabinet government with the prime minister having far more say than anybody else because he selects and sacks other ministers. MPs will nearly always obey the party whips and go into the division lobby which the whips indicate. If MPs hope for promotion they will toe the line, and the prime minister always has the power to advise the monarch to dissolve Parliament and make members face an election. Perhaps it is rather harsh to refer to MPs as 'lobby fodder', but nevertheless modern government is mainly in the hands of the prime minister and a few of his cabinet.

EXPLAIN WHAT IS MEANT BY:

authority
control
power
religious beliefs
joint authority
monarch
absolute power
democracy
suffragettes
totalitarian state
fascist government
communist government
nationalism
dominion status
monarchical state
constitutional monarch
British constitution

Parliament
British Government
Royal prerogative
president
House of Commons
legislation
division
House of Lords
money bills
Prime Minister
Cabinet
Leader of the Opposition
shadow cabinet
inner cabinet
collective responsibility

### CASE STUDY: THE CROOKED NOSE

John Thomson was in hospital for an operation on his sinuses. For months he had suffered from streaming eyes and a blinding headache.

A pretty little red-headed nurse with a super figure brought a tray covered with a clean white cloth and laid it on the table beside the high hospital bed.

She said, 'Now it will soon be time for your pre-op medication. Sister says you are *not* to touch these things and you mustn't look under the white cloth.' She swept out of the ward.

John looked at the cloth and wondered what was underneath. Would there be some nasty looking knives? He couldn't help having a quick peep.

The first thing he saw was a little white card. It said: '2.30 p.m. John Steward. Straighten nose.'

John Steward was a young boxer whose nose had been broken; it was to be reset that afternoon. The nurse had left the things for John Steward's operation beside John Thomson's bed.

'Nurse,' shouted John in a fifty-decibel voice. 'Nurse.'

Nobody came. John felt his nose. It seemed very straight. If they broke his nose and reset it, would he look like a prize fighter? John saw his chances with the little red-headed nurse disappearing fast.

'Sister!' yelled John Thomson, stepping up the volume to a hundred decibels. 'Sister, Sister!'

The Sister bustled in with severe steps and a stern *Shhhhh!* 'What's all this noise about?' she demanded.

'The nurse has left the wrong tray,' gasped John. 'This one is for young Steward.'

'How do you know?' said Sister. 'You were told not to look. It's a hospital tray.'

'Well, it's my nose,' said John Thomson.

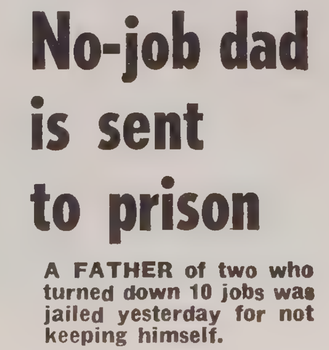
The Sister ignored him.

'You are a very bad patient,' she said. 'Hospital regulations are hospital regulations.'

1. What gives a hospital sister authority over her patients?
2. List six regulations essential for the smooth running of a hospital.
3. What do you consider to be the purpose and power of the governing body of a hospital or school?
4. What is bureaucracy? (Use a dictionary if you wish.) In what ways was the hospital sister being bureaucratic?

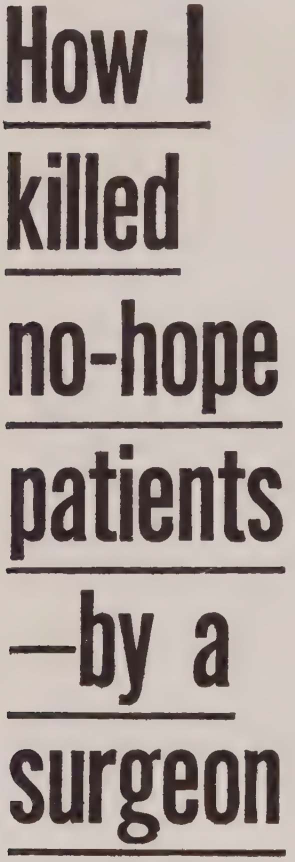
FOLLOW-UP

1. Would you rather live in a democracy or under a dictatorship? Give reasons.
2. Give reasons for and against a woman prime minister.
3. Prepare a dialogue to be taped between a person who believes Britain is a real democracy and one who says 'Britain is a democracy once every five years. After a General Election the people are puppets.'
4. Give reasons why you think these headlines are reasonable or unreasonable.



**No-job dad is sent to prison**

**A FATHER of two who turned down 10 jobs was jailed yesterday for not keeping himself.**



How I killed no-hope patients—by a surgeon

5. What limits are there upon the powers of a modern prime minister?

ACTIVITIES

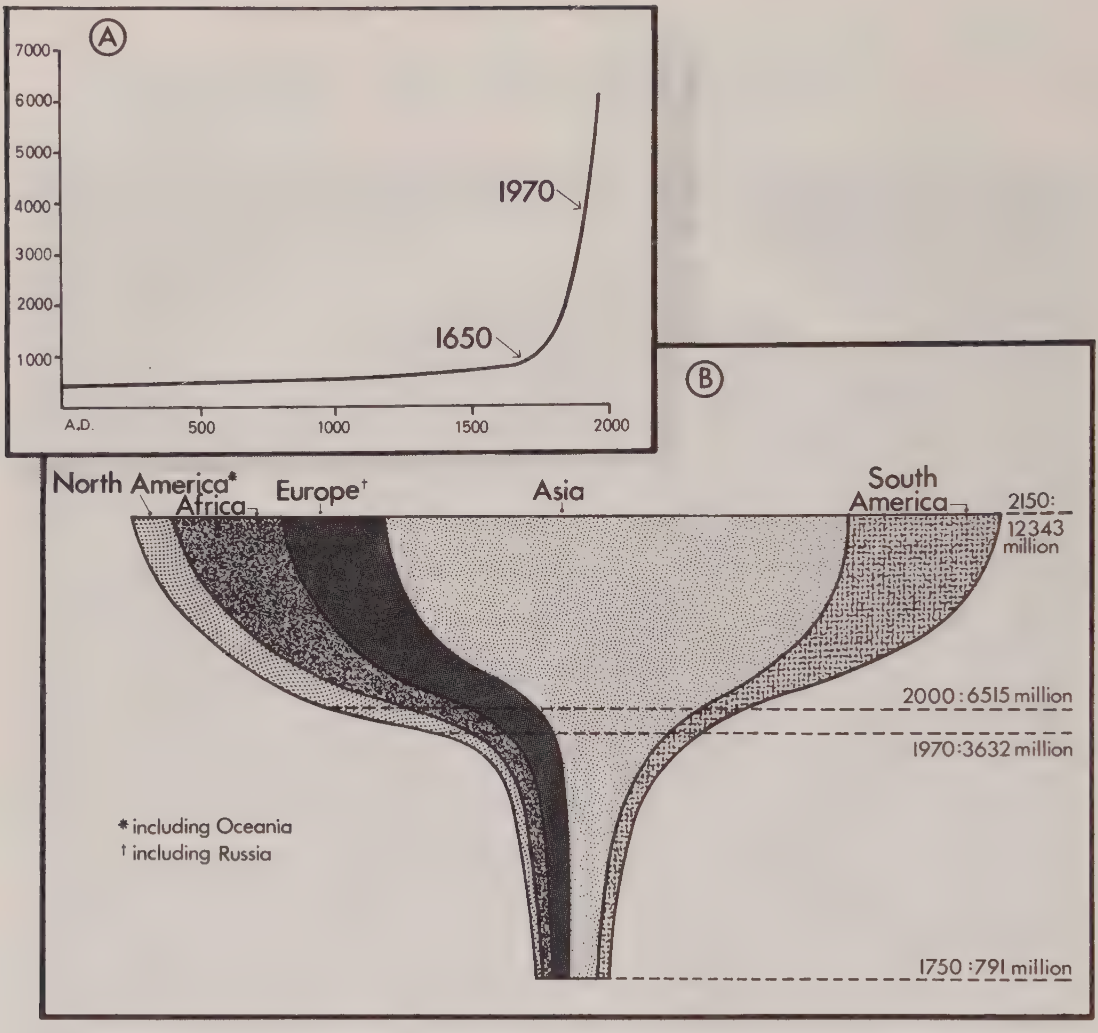
1. Collect press cuttings about the activities of pressure groups. In each case, say whom they are trying to influence, and why.
2. Find out the names of the present
   (a) Chancellor of the Exchequer
   (b) Foreign Secretary
   (c) Home Secretary
   (d) Secretary of State for Education and Science.
3. Draw a cartoon strip to illustrate a day in the life of an MP.
4. Interview one of the party political agents in your constituency. What job do they do?
5. Draw a map of your region and shade in red the areas represented by Labour MPs and in blue the areas represented by Conservative MPs.

CSE QUESTIONS

1. How does life in a Western democracy differ from that in a totalitarian state?
   (East Anglian Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
2. Newspaper reports on troubles in various parts of the world describe people divided by hate and bitterness.
   (a) What is prejudice? Give an example.
   (b) What is nationalism? Give an example.
   (c) What is meant by the persecution of minority groups? Give an example.
   (East Midland Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
3. (a) What is the difference between a monarch and a president?
   (b) What role does the Queen play in the country's affairs?
   (c) Is it better to have a monarch or a president? Give your reasons.
   (Metropolitan Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
4. The House of Commons has the chief responsibility in the United Kingdom for making the laws by which the country is governed.
   (a) What is a back-bencher?
   (b) What part do party whips play in parliamentary procedure?
   (c) What is the difference between the cabinet and the shadow cabinet?
   (East Midland Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
5. Explain in detail what happens at all stages of making an Act of Parliament, from first reading to Royal Assent.
   (East Anglian Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
6. In our political system we use the terms 'government, and 'opposition'. Explain the meaning of these two bodies and describe the duties of each.
   (East Midland Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)

# Unit 14 *WORLD PROBLEMS*

Britain's third nuclear test



The population explosion

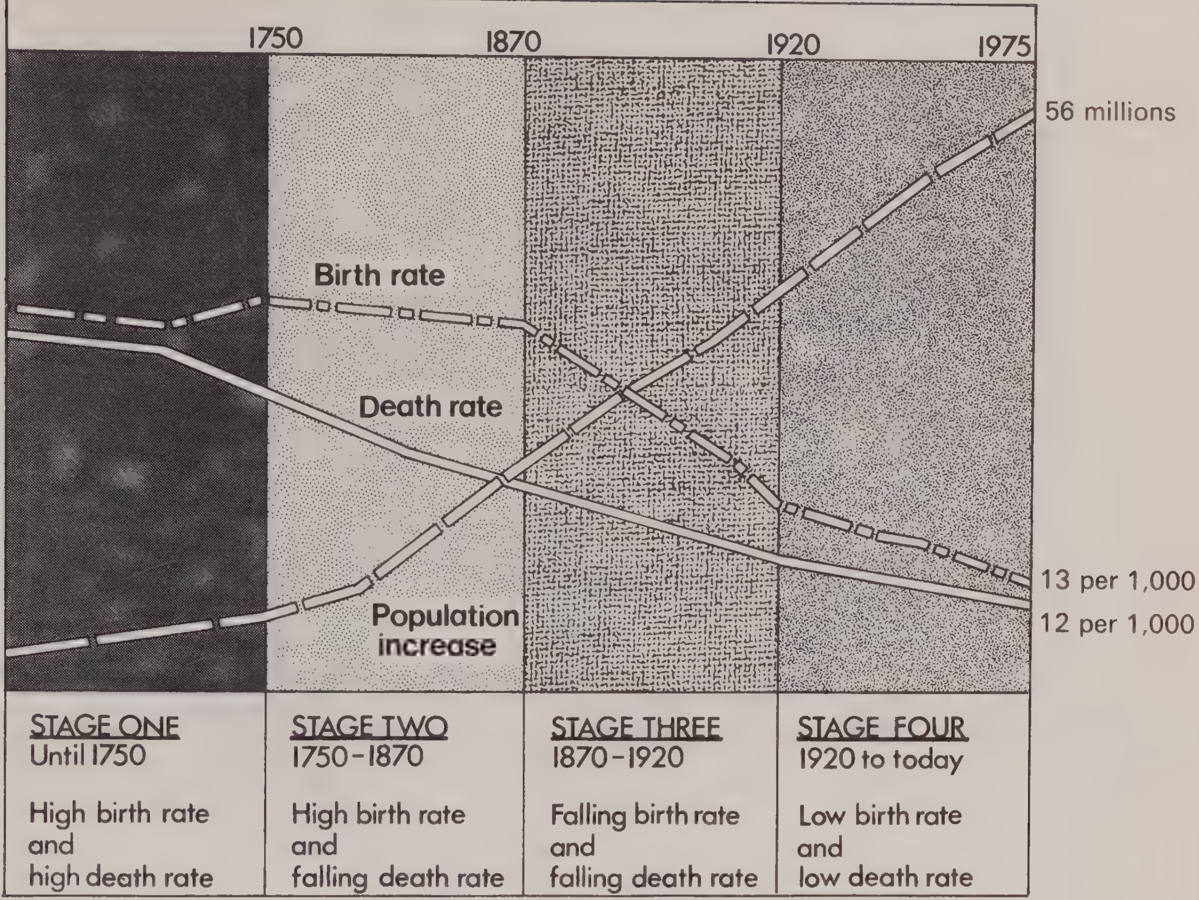
TOPIC 14.1 THE POPULATION EXPLOSION

It is doubtful if in 1675 there were 800 million people living on earth. We have only a rough idea of the number because in those days there were no large-scale censuses or registrations of births and deaths. We do know that by 1975 the world population had increased to over 3,800 million. If the present rate of population increase continues, there will be over 6,000 million people by the end of this century. Population estimates may be very inaccurate because of changes in birth and death rates. If power gets into the wrong hands and a nuclear war takes place, there might be nobody left at all. It is up to all of us to see that this does not happen.

One of the main aims of Social Studies is to look for solutions to problems of poverty, power and population pressures. It is more important to value the subject for its own sake, and the useful application that we can make of our knowledge, than to be concerned merely with passing an examination.

Look at the two illustrations above. From the first (A) you will see that world population began to increase greatly in the seventeenth century. Now look at the second illustration (B) and trace the steep increase in the twentieth century, especially after 1980. What are the reasons for these rapid changes?

It is difficult to account for the **population explosion** that has taken place in the last 300 years. Why didn't the population begin to increase rapidly before? Many factors had to combine



The four stages of the population cycle in Britain

before the take-off in the population explosion could begin.

The elimination of the *bubonic plague* was one vital factor. In 1665 the last dreadful plague epidemic came to Britain from the east. The disease was brought to this country by black rats that carried the plague fleas. They probably arrived in ships from Holland. Nobody is certain how many people died of the plague, but it may well have been about half of the population. Records of the time are found in the diaries of Samuel Pepys and John Evelyn. In September 1665 Evelyn recorded that in London 'there [were] perishing 10,000 poor creatures weekly'.

This was probably an exaggeration but we shall never know because of inadequate records. In the latter part of the seventeenth century the brown rat got the better of the black rat and human beings were saved from visitations of the plague.

FACTORS ASSISTING THE POPULATION EXPLOSION

1. No serious outbreaks of bubonic plague after the seventeenth century
2. Improved food of greater variety because of advances in agriculture and transport
3. Progress in preventive medicine, e.g. Jenner discovered a vaccination against smallpox
4. Industry provided the means to keep clean, e.g. increased supplies of soap and washable cotton clothes. Crockery and cutlery became fashionable
5. Curative medicine was advanced, e.g. use of the antiseptic carbolic acid spray (Lister)
6. New medical knowledge spread from abroad, e.g. the ideas of Pasteur and Koch about bacteria
7. People were able to afford larger families
8. More hygienic midwifery brought a drop in the infant mortality rate

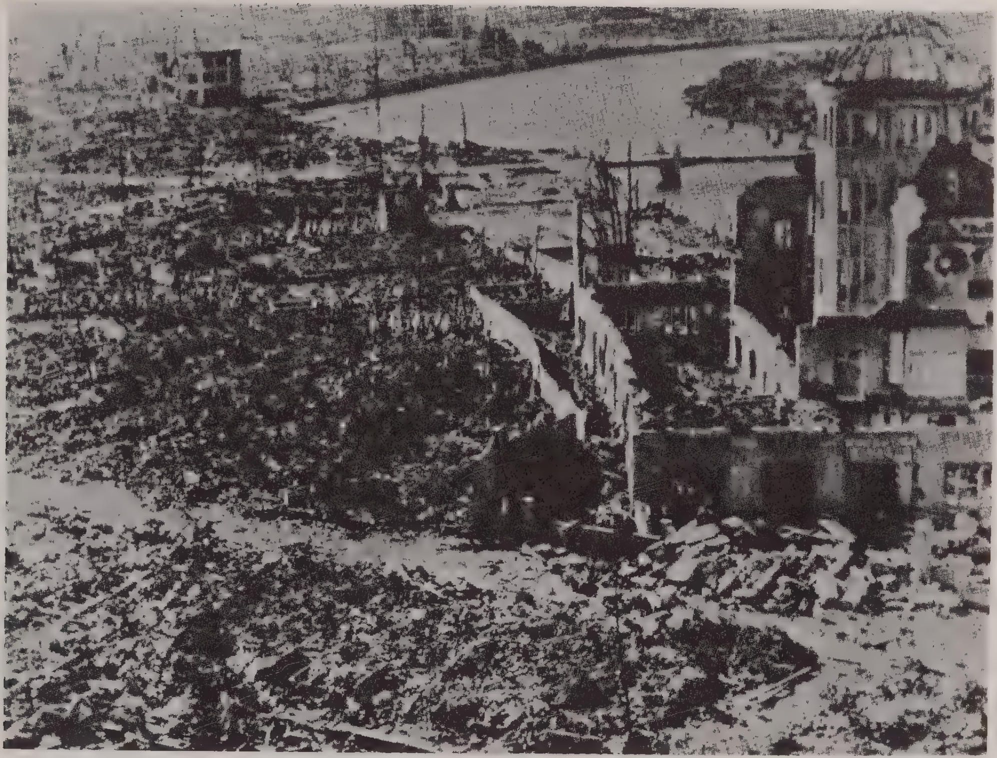
The population explosion began in Europe and North America but it was not long before numbers began to increase rapidly in the Middle East and the Far East. Demographically, the world today is made up of four groups of countries according to birth rate and death rate statistics. We saw (in Unit 5) that Britain has passed through all four stages of the cycle. Countries still in Stage 1 are principally under-developed countries in Africa, Asia, South America and the Caribbean.

Technologically developed countries which have reached Stage 4 in the **population cycle** include the United States, the Soviet Union, Japan and the affluent countries of Europe. Many of these have a high density of population and this applies especially to Belgium, Britain and Japan where the land area is small compared with the number of inhabitants. We saw in Units 4 and 5 how overcrowding leads to urban problems. The best or **optimum population** of a country is the population which, when combined with the land area, capital equipment and other resources, gives the greatest returns per head.

The first economist to draw attention to the population problem was the Reverend T. R. Malthus, whose book *An Essay on the Principle of Population* appeared in 1798.

Malthus realised that large population increases could bring social and economic evils because the forces of nature would control the number of people. Certain 'checks' would cause people to suffer great hardship. These **Malthusian checks** included

1. starvation
2. disease
3. war.



The result of one of two atomic bombs dropped on Japan in August 1945

We call them Malthusian checks because he was the first to appreciate an inevitable cycle of events and the consequent misfortunes. He did not like the idea of these misfortunes any more than anybody else.

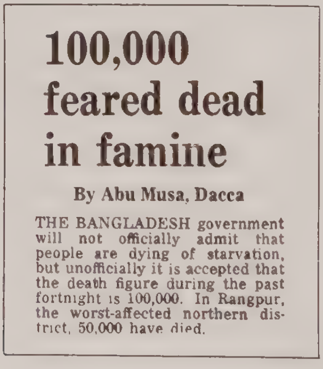
In a later edition of his book Malthus wrote about **moral restraint**, meaning that people might refrain from sexual intercourse and so limit population numbers.

In the late nineteenth century it appeared that the ideas of Malthus had been proved wrong. The population of the world increased rapidly but people did not seem worse off. In spite of occasional famines, people were better fed and better clothed than when Malthus wrote his famous book. The general improvement in living conditions was particularly obvious in Britain. It was easy to blame Malthus, but there are many things he could not have foreseen.

THINGS THAT NOBODY KNEW IN MALTHUS'S TIME

1. New scientific farming methods would bring about a great increase in food production
2. Food-producing regions would be opened up in the USA, Canada, Argentina, Australia and New Zealand
3. Railways would be used to transport huge quantities of wheat from the prairies
4. The industrial revolution would enable Britain to increase her exports of manufactured goods and buy imported foodstuffs
5. Refrigerated foodstuffs could be transported thousands of miles
6. The adoption of **contraception** or birth control methods would allow family planning to be practised

The need for population control. Newborn babies in Indonesia. It ranks fifth among the world's most heavily populated countries



## 100,000 feared dead in famine

**By Abu Musa, Dacca**

THE BANGLADESH government will not officially admit that people are dying of starvation, but unofficially it is accepted that the death figure during the past fortnight is 100,000. In Rangpur, the worst-affected northern district, 50,000 have died.

Will Malthus really be proved wrong in the long run? Or will improvements in the food supply be overtaken by the growth of world population? **Neo-Malthusians** believe Malthus is being proved right today in south-east Asia and other parts of the world. The United Nations Food Conference, which met in Rome in November 1974, considered the problem of one in five of the world's population facing starvation.

In such a situation, **refugees** are a great problem. The photograph shows a camp outside Niamey, capital of Niger in Africa, where thousands of families settled after months of severe drought.

A refugee camp outside Niamey, capital of Niger

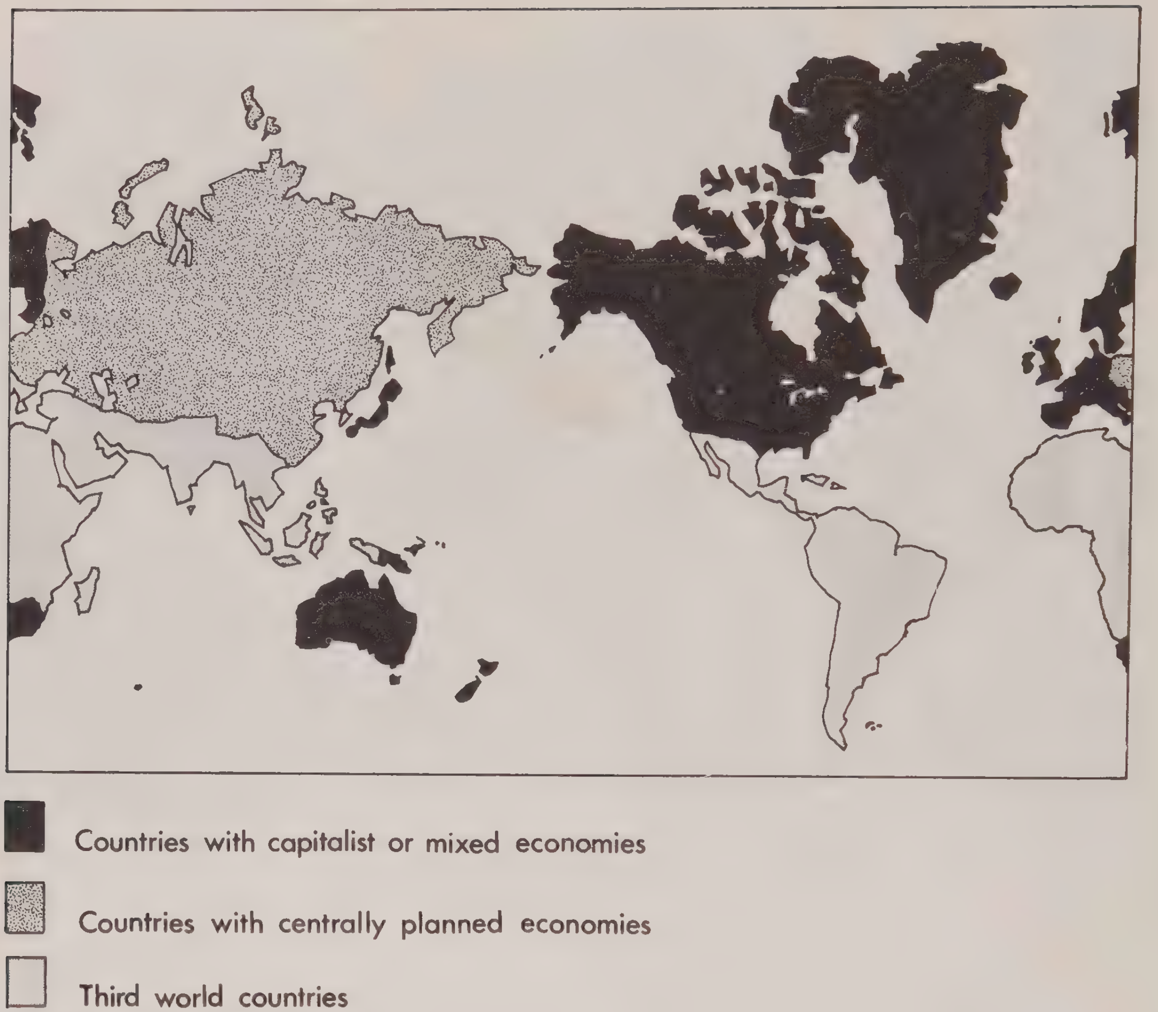
## TOPIC 14.2 THE THIRD WORLD

The **Third World** is the name given to the poorest parts of the world. These are countries which have not benefited from the wealth brought by either capitalist or communist economies.

The world is divided into three 'camps'. Countries such as the Soviet Union and the People's Republic of China have made great progress with planned economies. Others, such as the United States and the United Kingdom, have gained great material wealth from capitalist or mixed economies. The countries in these two groups are known as the **developed countries.** Finally there is the Third World of **under-developed countries**; these are the poor nations that make up two-thirds of the world's population.

These countries are politically non-aligned, i.e. not committed to either the United States bloc or the Soviet bloc. The under-developed countries are often prepared to accept assistance from both capitalist and communist groups. The so-called super-powers of today compete with others to supply **foreign aid** in an attempt to influence the **emergent nations.**

The great gulf separating the 'haves' from the 'have nots' is a serious problem. As the under-developed countries lack equipment, technical know-how and industry, the gap has tended to get


Countries with capitalist or mixed economies
Countries with centrally planned economies
Third world countries

A world divided into three

bigger rather than smaller. This situation is a breeding-ground for the seeds of war. It is no accident that poor countries have been the scene of military struggles in south-east Asia and the Middle East. Many people in the developed countries would accept that foreign aid should be given, if only because of the fact that if the richer nations do not send food and equipment the poorer nations will try to take it.

How can the richer countries best help the Third World? There are two controversial schools of thought which you ought to consider:

1. Should most of the aid be provided in *food parcels* to feed the starving millions?
2. Should aid be concentrated upon sending *technical assistance* in the form of experts and equipment such as tractors so that they stand on their own feet?

If aid from the developed countries is centred on helping the under-developed countries to help themselves, millions may die in the short run, but in the long run many more millions may be saved.

Perhaps the best answer lies in reconsidering our basic concept of life-cycles. It is necessary to speed the advance of Third World countries so that we telescope the process of development. How long does it take an under-developed country to become developed? In Sri Lanka (formerly Ceylon) the expectation of life at birth was increased in ten years (1946 to 1956) from 43 to 61 years. The advantages of imported medicine and knowledge allowed Sri Lanka to achieve something that had taken 200 years in Britain.

Many forget that Britain was once an under-developed country. It will be helpful to see how and why we developed. Britain had no super-powers willing to send her large supplies of food so that they could exert political influence upon her. We lifted ourselves by our own boot-straps. Britain quickly adopted ideas from abroad to help in the development of industry and technology.

The countries of the Third World must develop their own resources, industries and power supplies. Many of them have the advantage of being primary producers. Their raw materials could provide the basis for manufacturing industries. The concept of continual change means that the present pattern of under-developed countries and developed countries will not always remain.

It would be better for the peace of the world if the under-developed countries were encouraged to help themselves to become developed. The rival super-powers must be wary of indulging in a bitter competition to supply aid in return for political influence. The hopes of mankind may rest eventually in a world government where people work in harmony. In the immediate future the best hope lies in the **United Nations Organisation.**

## TOPIC 14.3 THE UNITED NATIONS ORGANISATION

Today 137 nations belong to this world organisation. This means that 3,500 million people are co-operating in the search for peace, justice and progress.

### POINTS OF THE UN CHARTER

1. To maintain peace and security
2. To develop friendly relations among nations
3. To achieve co-operation in solving world problems
4. To be a centre for harmonising the actions of nations in achieving these ends

At present the United Nations is not a **world government**. It is an organisation of sovereign nations. Many people think it should always remain so. They do not want individual nations to lose their sovereignty, i.e. the power to rule themselves. There is much to be said for nations keeping their own identity and culture. We return to the concepts of freedom and relationships. How much are the peoples of the various nations willing to sacrifice in the interests of the people of the whole world?

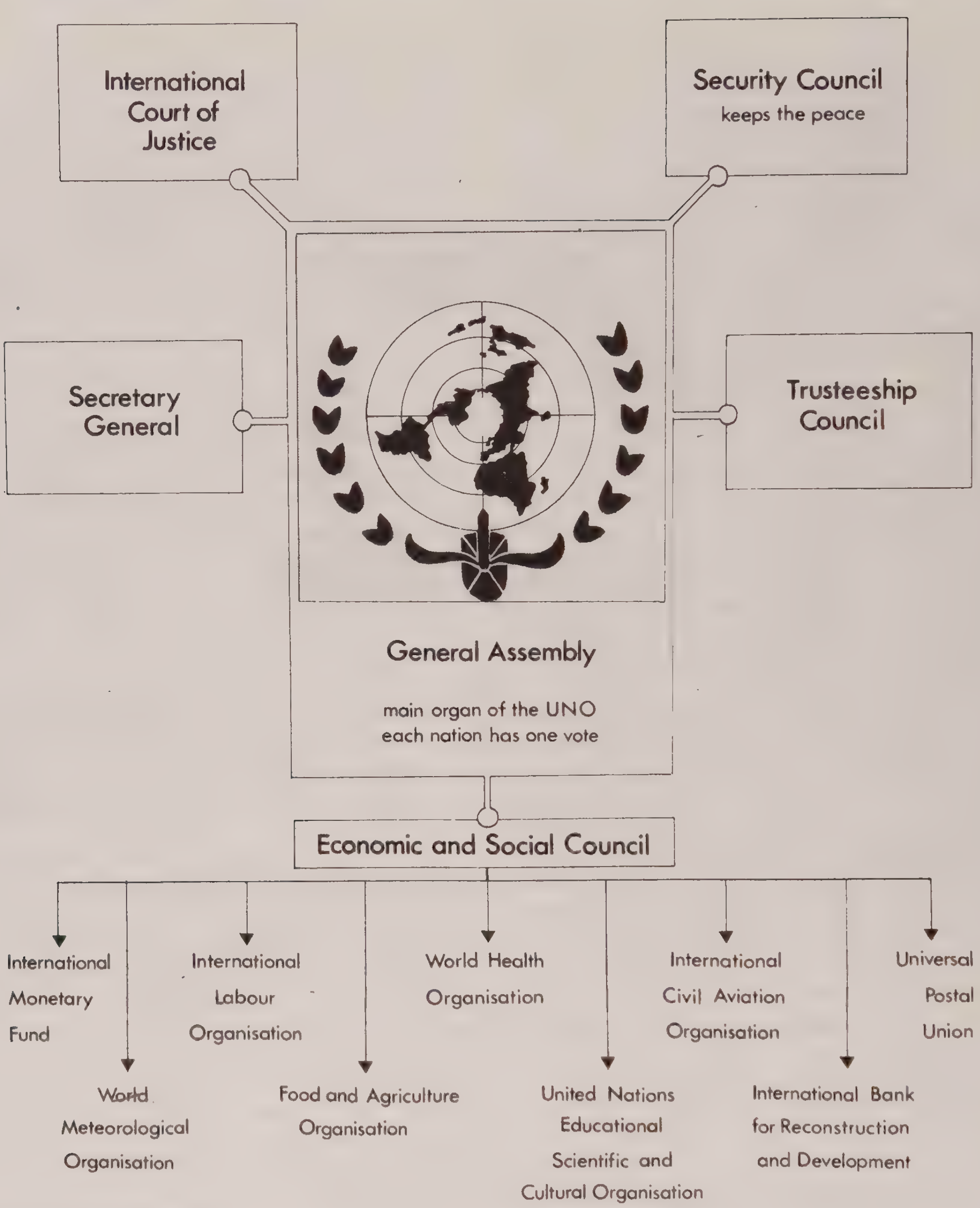
### PRINCIPLES OF THE UN

1. All members are sovereign and equal
2. All members are pledged to solve international disputes by peaceful means
3. No member shall use force or threaten to use force against the independence of any country
4. All members pledge themselves to assist actions taken in accordance with the UN Charter
5. The United Nations shall not interfere in the domestic affairs of any country except to enforce world peace

The six main organs of the United Nations are shown in the diagram. All are based in New York except the International Court of Justice which is located at The Hague.

The **General Assembly** is the nearest thing to a world parliament. All member countries are represented and each has one vote. On important issues a two-thirds majority is necessary, but most matters are settled by a simple majority. The Assembly can discuss and make recommendations about any matters within the scope of the UN Charter. Its recommendations carry the moral weight of world opinion, but it has no power to compel governments to take action.

The **Security Council** is the main UN body dealing with the peace of the world. It meets any time peace is threatened. The Council has fifteen members, five of whom are permanent members (China, France, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom and the United States). The other members are elected by the General Assembly and serve for two years. Decisions require nine votes, except on matters of important procedure when any permanent member can use the **veto** and stop the


International Court of Justice
Security Council
keeps the peace
Secretary General
Trusteeship Council
General Assembly
main organ of the UNO
each nation has one vote
Economic and Social Council
International Monetary Fund
World Meteorological Organisation
International Labour Organisation
Food and Agriculture Organisation
World Health Organisation
United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation
International Civil Aviation Organisation
International Bank for Reconstruction and Development
Universal Postal Union

The United Nations Organisation

council acting. On occasions, the veto has prevented speedy action and has been the cause of criticism. If fighting breaks out anywhere in the world the Security Council has the power to order military action by a UN force drawn from member countries. The Council may send peace-keeping observers or forces to troubled areas, as it has done in Cyprus and the Middle East in recent years.

The Secretary General is head of the *Secretariat* which works for the other organs of the UN and carries out the day-to-day tasks of the organisation. **The Economic and Social Council** aims to build a just and prosperous world; its activities include efforts to improve trade, transport, technology, housing, crime prevention and family planning. The **Trusteeship Council** oversees governments that

The Green Revolution. An experimental farm of rice-paddies in the Philippines

are responsible for looking after trust territories (mostly in Africa). The **International Court of Justice** consists of fifteen judges who give decisions in cases of international disputes.

The names of most of the **UN agencies** suggest the work that they do; e.g. the *International Civil Aviation Authority* deals with regulations and problems relating to aircraft and airports, and the *International Labour Organisation* is concerned with work, wages, trade unions, etc. We only have space to look at two of the agencies in detail, so we will concentrate upon the *Food and Agriculture Organisation* and the *World Health Organisation*. These are two of the most vital agencies and their work is very important in respect of the population explosion and the under-developed nations.

Smallpox vaccination at Dacca in India

UN ACHIEVEMENTS

*For peace*

1. A UN Emergency Force has been used in the Middle East on two occasions – 1956 and 1973
2. From 1960 to 1964 UN troops helped to maintain law and order in Zaire (previously the Belgian Congo) after independence had been granted
3. UN observers supervised the ceasefire after India–Pakistan hostilities in 1948–9 and 1965
4. A UN peace-keeping force took up positions in Lebanon in 1978

*For justice*

1. South Africa's **apartheid** (racial segregation) policy has been denounced by the General Assembly as a 'crime against humanity' and actions against it have included an arms embargo and a boycott of sports events which separate black and white people
2. The Security Council demanded that South Africa should vacate the vast trust territory of Namibia. (So far the South African government has not responded. What further action do you think should be carried out?)
3. The Security Council ordered all nations to stop trading with the minority regime in Rhodesia. These **economic sanctions** have been honoured by most member countries

The Food and Agriculture Organisation has its headquarters in Rome. Its purpose is to increase the production of the world's farmlands, forests and fisheries. The FAO was the first permanent agency and began its work in 1945. It is involved in a World Plan 1965–85.

There are two main ways of coping with the population explosion:

1. In the long term the number of people must be limited, probably by methods of birth control.
2. In the short term the increasing population must be fed. The Food and Agriculture Organisation is the most important body concerned with feeding the peoples of the world.

### SOME WAYS OF FEEDING MORE PEOPLE

1. Improved strains of rice and wheat with increased yields. (How successful is the 'Green Revolution'?)
2. Aid in the form of agricultural machinery, seeds, fertilisers and advice
3. Irrigation schemes to reclaim desert-land
4. Soil conservation methods to combat soil erosion
5. Effective pesticides to destroy insects which eat so much of the food produced
6. Propaganda to persuade people to eat different foodstuffs, e.g. soya beans, red kangaroo meat, seaweed, etc.
7. Industrialised animal production similar to battery-hen rearing. (What moral objections could be made to this practice?)
8. Synthetic foodstuffs, e.g. from petroleum
9. Education to teach people to reject anti-social customs and beliefs (e.g. India's sacred cows which are disease-ridden)
10. Fish-farming combined with control of catches so that fish breeding grounds are not destroyed

The World Health Organisation was founded in 1946 and has its headquarters at Geneva. For over thirty years it has worked to cut mortality and improve medical standards. One of the reasons why the world population continues to explode at an increasing rate is that the World Health Organisation is better at keeping people alive than the Food and Agriculture Organisation is at feeding them. Mass immunisation and vaccination plus the use of penicillin, DDT, antibiotics and other new drugs have given people a longer and healthier life.

The WHO has been particularly successful in attempts to eliminate 'killer diseases'. Until the WHO started a serious campaign, malaria was the world's worst killer disease, but from 1953 to 1959 malaria deaths fell from 800,000 to 10,000 a year. The WHO then turned its attention to smallpox. When its anti-smallpox campaign started, the disease was endemic in thirty countries and many others were reporting importation of the virus. Vaccination against smallpox had been beneficial for a very long time, but the difficulty was to get people to use it. WHO vaccination teams fanned out across vast areas of Ethiopia, Bangladesh and India, drawing the net ever closer around remaining pockets of smallpox infection. By 1976 the campaign had nearly ended. The population still at risk is but a minute fraction of that over which smallpox held sway ten years before.

We have seen that the UN organs and agencies are far from being just talking-shops. The UN has often been subject to press criticism and not enough credit has been given for all the work it has done in so many spheres. Local branches of the UN do their best to make people realise that the UN needs sustained support more than carping criticism. It is useful to have a reminder of a few of the achievements of the organisation.

## TOPIC 14.4 THE EUROPEAN ECONOMIC COMMUNITY

The **European Economic Community** or Common Market is a community of nine member countries. In 1957 six European countries agreed to co-operate in a single economic and social unit. By the Treaty of Rome they agreed to remove trade restrictions between them. A common policy is being developed on agriculture, postal rates, social security, transport and the free movement of money and people. It will be a long time before complete integration is achieved but the eventual aim is to have a common monetary policy and a European parliament elected by the peoples of Europe. Because of the success of the EEC, other countries applied to join and three new members, including the United Kingdom, were accepted in 1973.

EEC COUNTRIES

| *Since 1958* | *Since 1973* |
|---|---|
| Belgium<br>France<br>Italy<br>Luxembourg<br>Netherlands<br>West Germany | Denmark<br>Eire<br>United Kingdom |

What have been the successes of the Common Market?

1. A higher standard of living: prices have increased but wages have increased more, so people living in the EEC can buy extra goods with their wages. By 1973, standards of living were considerably higher in the EEC than in Britain.
2. Increased production: the gross national product (i.e. the total value of a country's production) increased nearly twice as fast in the original six countries of Europe from 1958 to 1973 as it did in Britain.
3. Increased trade between the countries of Western Europe: as about 40 per cent of Britain's imports and exports are with the Common Market it is in our interest to be able to trade freely in this nearby area of 250 million people.
4. Organisations such as *Eurorail, Euratom, European Coal and Steel Community* (ECSC) have encouraged large-scale enterprises.

The establishment of the ECSC in 1952 marked the beginning of modern efforts at large-scale European co-operation. A common market in coal and steel products was set up. The ECSC High Authority now supervises all EEC industrial co-operation

There are four other main institutions:

1. **The Council of Ministers** makes the most important decisions affecting the EEC. There are nine members, one from each country. The vital decisions affecting the community are taken by the nine foreign ministers voting unanimously.
2. **The European Commission** is composed of thirteen members (two each from France, Italy, Western Germany and the United Kingdom, and one each from the other five members). The Commission initiates all policy matters from its offices in Brussels; however, no vital changes can be made without the authority of the Council of Ministers.
3. **The European Parliament** may one day be the most significant institution in Europe. It could be a very powerful body if it represents the ordinary people of Europe. At present the people are only indirectly represented; the European Parliament is chosen from those who are already members of their national parliaments. The Parliament meets at Strasbourg and there are 198 members (36 each from the big four countries, 14 each from Belgium and Holland, 10 each from Denmark and Eire, and 6 from Luxembourg).
4. The **European Court of Justice** meets in Luxembourg. Its ten judges decide whether acts of member countries and the EEC institutions are in accordance with the Treaty of Rome.

Controversy raged between 1961 and 1975 concerning Britain and the Common Market. Britain first negotiated to join in 1961 but in 1963 was refused entry owing to the opposition of General de Gaulle, the French president.

In 1969 Harold Wilson asked Parliament to approve an application for membership, and after a full debate permission was granted by the overwhelming majority of 488 to 62. The French again objected to Britain's entry on the grounds that the British economy was suffering difficulties.

In 1969, the new French president, Georges Pompidou, made it clear that his government had no objection in principle to Britain's entry, provided it would not weaken the Community. In 1971 the House of Commons approved Britain's application for entry *in principle* by 356 votes to 244. The Treaty of Accession to the EEC was signed in January 1972 and Britain joined Europe in January 1973.

Anti-marketeers protested that the prime minister, Mr Edward Heath, had promised that Britain would not join without the consent of the British people and Parliament. Parliament had indicated its approval but the people's opinion had not been tested. Harold Wilson, then leader of the opposition, promised the unprecedented step of a national **referendum** to allow the people to express their wish on the single issue of whether we should remain a member of the EEC.

During 1974–5 the Labour Government re-negotiated improved terms for Britain's entry and then recommended that the people should accept these terms by voting yes in the referendum. The main change in the terms was that Britain should pay less towards the European Community's Budget.

Voting took place on 5 June 1975. It was the first referendum the country had ever had. Will there be others? A referendum is contrary to our customary practice of allowing elected MPs to use their own discretion and judgement. It would be very cumbersome to test the wishes of the people on every vital issue, and if this procedure was attempted MPs might be little more than puppets.

The government argued that Britain's membership of the Community was far more important than any other issue, and in any event the people had been promised they would have a say on the issue. A vigorous campaign preceded the referendum vote. The market issue cut across party lines, and cabinet ministers who opposed Britain's membership were given the unusual opportunity of campaigning throughout the country against the government's re-negotiated terms.

### SOME OF THE ANTI-MARKETEERS' ARGUMENTS

1. The written constitution of the Treaty of Rome gives too much power to the Commissioners in Brussels and is contrary to Britain's system of government by a flexible constitution
2. The balance of trade with the EEC is to the disadvantage of the UK; the invisible costs have been estimated at £3,000m p.a., including £2,000m annual growth, Britain could have outside the market.
3. Food prices in Britain had increased greatly because the Common Agricultural Policy taxes and excludes cheaper imported foodstuffs while subsidising Europe's high-cost food surpluses
4. Britain's chances of peace would be better if she were not tied to a European bloc which is in a midway position between the two super-powers of the USA and the USSR
5. In the 1980s Britain will be self-sufficient in energy supplies (oil, gas and coal) and will be in a position to have a prosperous economic future outside the Community
6. As part of Europe, Britain has lost her age-old independence and sovereignty

### SOME OF THE PRO-MARKETEERS' ARGUMENTS

1. In the modern world Britain cannot make much progress as a European off-shore island
2. Our sovereignty will be retained – the monarchy will continue as in Holland, and Parliament always has the power to withdraw from the Community
3. EEC countries have progressed more than Britain with greater productivity and a higher standard of living
4. Britain is geographically part of Europe, whereas our old trading partners in North America and Australasia are thousands of miles away
5. While the EEC remains on our doorstep, Britain should play a major part, rather than leave European leadership to France and Germany
6. There has been an age-old tendency for countries to join larger groupings, and membership of the European Community is a step towards the ultimate goal of a world community

### RESULT OF THE EEC REFERENDUM

| | |
|---|---|
| *Yes* | 17,378,581 (67·2%) |
| *No* | 8,470,073 (32·8%) |
| *Majority* | 8,908,508 |
| *Turnout* | 63·2% |
| *Electorate* | 41,079,269 |

The arguments may continue for many years, but now that the British people have decided to remain in the European Community, the people must unite to make it a success. Within the larger environment of a united Europe there is more scope for each individual to enjoy a life of increasing prosperity. The Community must look outwards and play its part in ridding the world of want, disease, fear and ignorance. The hope of mankind lies in the individual spirit, and the willingness of individuals to live in a spirit of co-operation.

### EXPLAIN WHAT IS MEANT BY:

- population explosion
- population cycle
- optimum population
- Malthusian checks
- moral restraint
- contraception
- neo-Malthusians
- refugees
- Third World
- developed countries
- under-developed countries
- foreign aid
- emergent nations
- United Nations Organisation
- United Nations Charter
- world government
- General Assembly
- Security Council
- veto
- Economic and Social Council
- Trusteeship Council
- International Court of Justice
- UN agencies
- apartheid
- economic sanctions
- European Economic Community
- Council of Ministers
- European Commission
- European Parliament
- European Court of Justice
- referendum

### CASE STUDY: A RARE FEAST

The Rev. A. Goodbody was delighted when he was chosen by the Missionary Society to go to a very isolated part of South America. For years he had been begging his church to send him to the overseas mission field. It would be a welcome change from his quiet rural living in Suffolk.

Alan Goodbody knew that he was being sent to a dangerous part of the American continent. The climate was equatorial, the Amazon basin unhealthy for a white man, while the natives were reputed to be far from friendly. Years ago they had been cannibals. These people lived in a part of the Third World which was very under-developed. Famine was a common occurrence, and it was by no means certain that they would not resort to cannibalism again, if the need arose.

After months of preparations and travelling, Alan Goodbody arrived in his new 'parish'. He was well received by the missionary who had completed a year's service and knew that Goodbody's arrival meant his departure. The Missionary Society had given Alan Goodbody a crash course in the rudiments of the native language and he was soon trying it out. The tribal chiefs were interested in everything connected with the white man's way of life.

The Rev. Goodbody had never been asked so many questions about his religion. His parishioners back in Suffolk had not cared about religious beliefs. They had been far more interested in the weather and its effect on their crops.

Some of the questions which the natives asked were far from easy. The new missionary found it very difficult to explain why so-called Christian countries were making huge bombs which could kill millions of people. Did not God tell them to love one another?

'If your God say you forgive enemy, is there war in your land?' asked one of the tribal chiefs.

'Oh, yes,' said the Rev. Goodbody, 'I am afraid we have had two long wars this century.'

'Are many people killed?'

'Unfortunately, yes,' answered the new missionary. 'Millions and millions.'

'Do you eat them?' questioned the chiefs.

The Rev. Goodbody broke into a hearty laugh. These people seemed so simple. How could they think such wicked thoughts?

'Of course we don't eat them,' he answered.

The chiefs paused to reflect.

'What a waste,' murmured the oldest chief, 'what a waste.'

1. What reasons can be put forward for and against intelligent beings using their resources to manufacture H-bombs capable of killing millions of people?
2. Try to find out what the following main religions of the world teach about peace and war:
   (a) Christianity
   (b) Judaism
   (c) Hinduism
   (d) Buddhism
   (e) Islam

3. Suggest ways in which a world government would help to abolish war.
4. List the most important peaceful productive aims that could be achieved if the United Kingdom did not spend so much on defence.

FOLLOW-UP

1. Suggest 5 reasons why people in the developed areas have a responsibility for those in under-developed areas.
2. What do you think is a reasonable size for a family? Give reasons for your answer. Why might you have answered differently if you lived in Ethiopia, Australia or Libya?
3. Write a story about the folly of war beginning 'It was the day some idiot pressed the button . . .'.
4. Man has been described as 'a naked ape'. List some of man's violent characteristics and say how you think they could be adapted for peaceful ends.
5. How can the EEC help?
   (a) the peace of the world?
   (b) under-developed countries?

ACTIVITIES

1. Do some research on birth rate and death rate movements to find which of the four stages in the population cycle have been reached by
   (a) Brazil
   (b) China
   (c) Zaire
   (d) The United States
   (Use the *UN Statistical Year Book* where possible)
2. Compare the past, present and likely future population statistics for
   (a) Africa
   (b) America
   (c) Asia
   (d) Europe
   (e) Oceania
3. Design a poster to illustrate *one* of the following slogans:
   (a) 'Each one. Teach one.' (To read and write)
   (b) 'Give a man a fish and you feed him for a day. Teach a man to fish and you feed him for life.'
   (c) 'Two will do.' (Children)
4. On a blank map of the world indicate the main 'flashpoints' since 1945 (e.g. Cuba 1962).
5. Collect pictures and make a display showing distinctive features of the EEC countries.

CSE QUESTIONS

1. Today world population is increasing at a faster rate than ever before in the history of mankind, and it is expected to double in size over the next thirty-five years.
   (a) Which areas of the world are experiencing high rates of population increase?
   (b) Explain clearly why world population is increasing so rapidly.
   (c) Write about *two* possible consequences to a country experiencing a rapid increase in population.
   (East Anglian Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
2. (a) What is a refugee?
   (b) What forces people to become refugees?
   (c) What problems may arise from settling in a very different country?
   (Metropolitan Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
3. Compared with many other countries, Britain is prosperous. Discuss the reasons for this.
   (a) What is an under-developed country?
   (b) Was Britain once an under-developed country?
   (c) What is industrialisation?
   (d) Discuss some of the differences in work in developed and under-developed countries)
   (Middlesex Regional Examining Board for CSE, Social Studies)
4. Explain the general structure of the United Nations Organisation. A diagram may be included.
   (East Anglian Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
5. Describe the ways in which any one of the UN agencies helps under-developed countries.
   (East Midland Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)
6. What benefits does Britain expect from joining the Common Market? What are the fears of those people in this country opposed to our joining?
   (Metropolitan Regional Examinations Board for CSE, Social Studies)

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*Modern Society: Social Studies for CSE* is a highly successful textbook by the well-known teacher and author Jack Nobbs. It has been written for CSE pupils taking the new social science/social studies courses. The book is divided into five parts: 'Living with others', 'Living in the community', Living and learning', 'Earning a living', and 'Living in the world'. These are broken down into fourteen units, and at the end of each unit there are suggestions for follow-up work: individual and group activities, a case study and past CSE questions.

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